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ABSTRACT

This volume on the general subject of foreign language curriculum deals with questions in the areas of program planning, implementation, and evaluation. The following papers are presented: (1) "Developing Foreign Language Curriculum in the Total School Setting: The Macro-picture," by Robert S. Zais; (2) "Identifying Needs and Setting Goals," by Frank Medley, Jr.; (3) "Choosing Materials That Do the Job," by Carl H. Johnson; (4) "Beyond the Desk," by Clayton Christensen; (5) "Teaching and Learning: A Key to Success," by Patricia B. Westphal; (6) "Print and Non-Print Materials: Adapting for Classroom Use," by Anthony S. Mollica; (7) "Measuring the Variables and Testing the Outcomes," by Rebecca Valette and Cathy Linder; (8) "Looking at the results," by Alice Omaggio, Peter Eddy, Lester McKim, and Anthony Pfannkuche; and (9) "Modyifying the Program and Providing for Change," by Helen Z. Loew. (AMH)

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Building on Experience—Building for Success

Edited by June K. Phillips

In conjunction with the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

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Foreword

Many individuals have contributed their experience and expertise to the preparation of this volume of the ACTFL *Foreign Language Education Series.* The curricular theme and practical orientation of this work were conceived and developed by the Advisory Committee for Volume 10. The members gave fully of their time, energies, and commitment to establish a resource that should prove valuable to the profession. This very commendable committee consisted of: Warren Born, Marcella De Muth, Randall Jones, Helen Jorstad, Alice Omaggio, Charles Vedder, Protase Woodford, Leonard Fiddle and C. Edward Scebold.

At ACTFL headquarters, Ed Scebold and Warren Born effectively kept communication channels open as authors were chosen and manuscripts reviewed. It was always comforting to this editor to know that help was only a phone call away. Rebecca de García and Janice Feldstein provided valuable editorial assistance at National Textbook Company; Elizabeth Stout's production work and quick response are also appreciated.

Without the work of people at Indiana University of Pennsylvania, many time consuming tasks would have fallen to the editor. Her thanks go to Connie Hurd for her secretarial skills and Gabriela Rhea for her editing and indexing assistance.

If this volume becomes the success hoped for, it is due to the combined efforts of these individuals and others behind the scenes.

Introduction: The Curricular Cycle

June K. Phillips
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Curriculum is the keystone that holds the educational structure together. The core of this keystone is comprised of all those forces, events, and outcomes that embody the educational scene. To be effective this link must be strong and solid, but not rigid. It must be able to weather and adapt as necessary to support the institution it serves.

Curriculum is also a unifying force, for it encompasses the interaction of teachers, students, and content at its center and sustains the administrative, community, and national pressures upon them as well. A Northeast Conference Committee (Born, 1) defined curriculum as "... all the educational experiences planned by those whose major responsibility it is to provide instruction..." (p. 15). To that definition, one might additionally credit successful curricula for contributing to some of the unplanned, unexpected outcomes that result in individual growth long after the immediate school experience has passed. As we explore the curricular cycle, we hope to focus on the vast range of educational concerns joined under the rubric, *Curriculum.*

The choice of foreign language curricula as the theme for the ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series this year seems particularly appropriate, since a milestone has been reached with this tenth volume. The end of a decade offers a convenient vantage point for an assessment of what has been and what is to come. It has been an active and exciting decade; at times it has been an overwhelming and confusing one. Questions have been asked and researched; some answers have been offered, and more questions have been asked. Teachers have been trained in prescriptive methodologies and then retrained to choose among the options. The profession has seen its

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discipline run the gamut from being the recipient of funding and having a place of honor to being a "frill" and a seldom-elected elective. It becomes a task of this Series to analyze and synthesize the specialized and complex body of information about second language learning that has been and is being collected. The ultimate impact of the Series, or of any professional endeavor, is felt only when it *makes a difference* in what happens in the classroom, when it enables educators and students to reach for and attain that sometimes elusive, but ever impressive, always contagious quality known as SUCCESS.

Predicting the future is always more dangerous than assessing the past. Yet in realization of how much we have been learning and with an awareness of how many exciting projects are underway in classrooms all over this world, we face the decade ahead with a renewed sense of the contribution we have to make. If the profession shares a single goal, it is that foreign language learning, foreign language teaching, foreign language programs be successful. The quest of basic research is the identification of the components of success; articles in journals spread information to help readers realize their own successes; conferences attract people eager to hear and to share success stories. As an overview to the contents of this volume, let us take a critical look at this issue of curriculum and the ways in which we build on experience in order to build for success.

At issue: Curriculum

In its narrowest sense, curriculum is thought of as course content, or even as that volume of mimeographed material buried in a desk drawer somewhere. The cover page probably states: Curriculum Guide for Foreign Languages, Anytown, U.S.A. At the college level curriculum has been equated with whatever the catalogue says it is—X credits are required to complete the sequence for that program. A much broader and more meaningful definition is inherent in the literature of the general curriculum area and its foreign language component.

Taba (9) bases a theory of curriculum development on three sets of criteria. The first requires an analysis of the culture and society being served. In this age of accountability and local fiscal pressure, it is especially important that program proponents delve into community attitudes. An early awareness of the evolving, changing nature of the curricular process is also emphasized, for the focus of this needs assessment must be broad enough to plan for the future, not just for the present. According to Taba (9), the data generated serves as a guide for:

1 determining objectives
2 selecting the concepts to teach
3 deciding the learning activities to stress

A second component of curriculum design is the body of information dealing with the nature of learners and the learning process. To maintain the vitality of a program, this category might include not only what *is* known, but what *needs* to be known. The third criterion centers upon the nature of knowledge itself, that is, content. This would focus on the contribution a single discipline makes to the total school curriculum as well as the content within a subject area that determines its course material.

Drawing from these resources, program development proceeds in fairly universal stages, regardless of the discipline. In foreign language education, the curricular cycle contains the same major issues that concern education generally, although the problems and responses take on specific characteristics. The Latin root of "curriculum" referred to a "race track," a term that triggers a circular image in one's mind. At other moments, it may connote the word "running," which will evoke for many teachers the image of going around and around on a treadmill with the curriculum issue.

In any case, curriculum is not a package, neatly bound in a book or catalogue; it is a *process.* While a beginning stage or a final one might be identified, there is no period, no end to the line. The last stage produces feedback that must be implemented into a revised beginning, so that the cycle keeps moving by using experience to produce further successes.

Successful programs require teachers and support personnel to assume responsibility for introducing the change element into the cycle. There are several ways of labeling the links in the curricular chain. The 1975 Northeast Conference Committee identified the four components as:

1 goals and objectives
2 course content
3 human resources
4 informal and formal evaluation (Born, 1, p. 17)

Goals and objectives reflect the diversity and change that are always part of program development. No sooner are they written than they may need revision because of a changing student body, new knowledge, or different needs. In a plea for curricular renovation that reached the public's ear, Silberman (8) stressed that a single curriculum for all time or for all students at any given time is totally unsuitable. Such a notion confuses the means of education with the ends. However, to say that no one curriculum should be specified for everyone does not imply that there should be none at all.

The content of curriculum evolves from the goals. In foreign language classrooms, a rich spectrum of content is already evident; indeed, the "content-free" nature of our discipline allows a wide range of choice in this area. It is, perhaps, approaches to content and the concepts involved, rather than subject matter, that demands the attention of foreign language educators. If communication is a goal, the content may take many forms, but the profession needs to determine the most efficient approach to practice the language in that context, and to identify the linguistic elements required for that competence.

The human resources link can make or break the curricular cycle. When it is strong, exciting and successful language learning results. The teacher's flexibility and decision-making capacity needs constant nourishment. Mosston (5) postulates the teaching dilemma on the fact that "... man is not a one-dimensional creature and, therefore, no single plan, device, or form of teaching behavior can accommodate his full development" (p. 5). Thus, the larger the teacher's repertoire of behavioral models, the more likely he or she will be to match successfully the multitude of learning styles in the classroom. Mosston's short text, *Teaching: From Command to Discovery*, presents a continuum of teaching models upon which the skillful practitioner can effect desired changes in his or her own performance. Hansen (4) also sees teacher behavior as the key to instructional improvement. He concludes that "All innovation, all the materials and paraphernalia, and all the acclaimed successes are inappropriate unless the teacher behaves more effectively and the student relates to the experiences more meaningfully" (p. 315). The task of educators is to be alert to changing goals and aspirations even as we take responsibility for designating that content and those approaches which our own informed professional judgment deems relevant. It is hoped that this volume will be a valuable resource for gaining that information.

From experience to success

If this volume is to enrich the experience of teachers, it must draw upon the collective experiences of the profession at large. The viability of the adage "Experience is the best teacher" hinges on the definition given the word "experience." Chastain (3) reminds us that experience is not the only teacher. A broader interpretation of the term embraces the notion of experience as an intellectual as well as a participatory process. Granted, the primary source of knowledge for the classroom teacher lies in his or her direct experience with techniques, materials, students, and evaluation. Van Til (10) claims that "A teacher does not need extensive instruction in educational psychology to realize that his teaching must be connected with the student's background, drives and life if any learning is to take place. Experience soon teaches a teacher this axiom" (p. 234).

Fortunately, we also learn from the experiences colleagues relate and from the experiments researchers conduct. Since there is no need to "reinvent the wheel," each teacher owes it to him/or herself to assimilate and experiment with approaches others recommend as successful. Rogers (6, 7) encourages teachers to take risks, to try what others have tried. Before this can happen, however, the teacher must perceive that there is a problem or a place where improvement can be made. Self-discovered learning is the only effective learning, and that applies to teachers as learners, too. Rogers (7) analyzes his own learning style by stating that he needs "... to state my own uncertainties, to try to clarify my puzzlements, and thus get closer to the meaning that my experience actually seems to have" (p. 277).

Consequently, the teacher who senses a need to know will go out in search of answers. It is the intent of this collection of articles to assist in that quest by providing an opportunity to share in the experiences of others toward the goal of better managing the curricular cycle.

Stages in the cycle

The 1978 Northeast Conference Committee (Born, 2) identified eight abilities which the successful foreign language teacher must develop:

- recognizing different learning styles
- prescribing appropriate activities to meet those needs
- functioning as a team member
- relating effectively to colleagues and the public
- designing curriculum
- writing and implementing curriculum guidelines
- collecting and evaluating print and nonprint materials
- planning and evaluating foreign language programs (p. 68)

The reader will find that *Building on Experience—Building for Success* addresses each of these areas although the topics are treated in a more sequential way. Contributing authors have gone beyond the professional literature; they took a case-study approach where warranted; they dug deeply into the programs, courses, approaches that are working well in an attempt to identify the elements that make them alive and successful.

Volume 10 speaks directly to the classroom practitioner, supervisor, and methods instructor, in an effort to help in the decision-making process with the essential questions in three major areas: program planning, implementation, and evaluation. These are not traditional chapters, for they do not stand alone as units that cover comprehensively categorized pieces of information. The divisions have no rigid boundaries; a flow of information occurs from one stage or segment of the curriculum to another. Individual readers might pinpoint a section as an area of major importance to them at a given moment, but the interdependence of the facets of program building should encourage cover-to-cover reading. While the decision at hand may be textbook selection, the educator who seeks success must delve into other stages to see how this choice interacts with objectives, adaptation, evaluation, and classroom atmosphere. Successful programs have much in common, and those elements can be identified. Successful programs have unique characteristics that set them apart; perhaps, these can be revealed, too.

Robert Zais brings his expertise in curriculum to the question of foreign language study in the total school setting. He reveals the inner workings of the system, the bureaucracy, and shows us how to effectuate change by using the organization to work for us not against us. This is both an intriguing "think-piece" on the liberalizing potential of foreign language study and a key to understanding the system within which we work.

Frank Medley, Jr., initiates the program planning stage with a discussion of needs assessment. He synthesizes information from the general literature and combines it with his own experience—the result is a step-by-step model designed specifically for the foreign language specialist. This is an especially important contribution in that it provides us with a systematic approach to an area we have neglected in action.

Carl Johnson has explicated a text selection process that will aid teachers in making one of the crucial decisions that has a daily impact on their program. He investigates the differences that arise when teachers are bound by state guidelines and when they have complete freedom of choice. The process is concretized with a sample evaluation form which the teacher can use, expand, or adapt to his or her needs.

Ben Christensen takes us beyond the desk to probe the classroom interactions that contribute toward a healthy environment. His insights into those factors come from both the teacher and the student perspective. Examples of ways to maintain positive attitudes are given at a practical language level, and a teacher's self-report on how she achieves her rapport is included.

Patricia Westphal focuses on teacher performance in the classroom. She selects from the wide range of approaches and techniques that have arisen over the last decade and identifies their strengths. To help the teacher make sense of these options, she presents a decision-making model that assures that selection of an approach is consistent with objectives and is compatible with the students being taught. The theory or description of approaches is translated to specific language examples.

Tony Mollica frees us from the textbook as sole source of materials. He shows us exciting new ways of using a spectrum of materials in the classroom; he also revitalizes some of the traditional uses by adapting them to a more communicative approach. Teachers will find ideas here that they can implement at once to add interest to the program they already have.

Rebecca Valette and Cathy Linder present a manageable and effective guide to testing and measurement. They identify the role and adequacy of standard instruments, and they lead the teacher through the process of teacher-constructed tests to measure what is taught. Especially welcome is their consideration of the question of grading, and the way in which this issue is linked to the evaluation process.

Alice Omaggio, Peter Eddy, Lester McKim, and Tony Pfannkuche address the issue of program evaluation. For foreign language education, no complete model was available in the literature. Thus the authors went into the field, studied the process, and here present us with a procedure that teachers can try. Evaluation processes are set forth, several case studies are presented, and finally, a step-by-step example of an evaluation is applied on a building level.

Helene Loew completes the cycle and gears it up for revision by addressing the stage of modifying programs and initiating change. She looks carefully at inservice, its thrust and its performance. She identifies the agents for change and how they can become more effective. Indeed, she demonstrates that the program can only be successful when change is systematically built into the cycle and accepted by the teachers involved.

Thus the first decade of the ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series comes to a close. Volume 10 will not complete a cycle either; it will act as a keystone, a link to the decade ahead. If this volume fulfills its conceptualization it will become a primary, a standard reference aimed at making more language programs successful and more successful language programs.

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Stage 1

Developing foreign language curriculum in the total school setting: The macro-picture

Robert S. Zais
Kent State University

Introduction: How broad a perspective is necessary

Few of us would dispute the contention that we exist, not in a vacuum, but in a dynamic context that affects us (and is affected by us) in our daily encounters with life. The extent to which we are immersed in our environments—in particular, organized environments—is perhaps best captured by the sociologist Etzioni (17), who writes:

> We are born in organizations, and most of us spend much of our lives working for organizations. We spend much of our leisure time paying, playing, and praying in organizations. Most of us will die in an organization, and when the time comes for burial, the largest organization of all—the state—must grant official permission (p. 1).

Thus we all concede the need to take into account the complex web of interdependent economic, political, social, and of course, educational structures that link us one to another in making the decisions that determine the future of our individual and collective lives.

Yet the most casual observance of our behavior reveals a disconcerting gap between what we say we believe and what we do. This is nowhere

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truer—ironically—than in educational organizations (i.e., schools of all varieties) where the insularity of subjects, departments, teachers, counselors, and administrators—to say nothing of the school itself vis à vis the community—has become almost legendary. Far from taking into account the full range of environmental factors that affect their daily activities, most school personnel seem remarkably intent upon ignoring them: Chemistry teachers are not interested in the mathematics curriculum; history teachers do not see how the English department's course revisions can possibly affect them; the middle school program is of no concern to high school teachers; almost no one talks to an administrator except to lodge a complaint; and foreign language teachers are shocked to learn that for several years the school counselors have been blithely advising students that they "don't need a foreign language because colleges aren't requiring it any more."

This insularity in education generally is acknowledged to be, at least partly, the result of specialization, an organizational form made necessary by burgeoning knowledge. There is no disputing the contention that for the best knowledge available in a given area, we should rely on specialists. Yet, specialization has created its own curious kind of ignorance. It has resulted in patronizing attitudes toward outsiders, a parochial (if not entirely superficial) view of the total educational enterprise, and not the least damaging, behavioral patterns among educators that are detrimental to the effectiveness not only of the total curriculum, but also of each of its special subjects (see especially Belknap and Kuhns, 4; The Harvard Committee, 22; Royce, 41; and Wirth, 51).

Specialization is an indispensable characteristic of contemporary society and its educational institutions; without it, modern civilization would be impossible. However, the insularity and parochialism that it has bred are not necessary concomitants. They occur mainly because people prefer to think of themselves, *au fond*, as Specialists, rather than as generalists (i.e., educated human beings) with a specialty. And who can really blame them? Society confers the most honorific status on those whose degree of specialization is the most narrow and esoteric, while it accords proportionately diminished credibility (and authority) to those who take a broader perspective.

Given the necessity for specialization in contemporary society, it would be wrong to present the issue as a choice between generalist or specialist. The real question is: "How broad a perspective is required to prevent specialization from constricting our view of the whole, from reducing us to parochial technicians?" More specifically, for those of us in the teaching profession the question becomes: "How broad a perspective is necessary to integrate our enterprise, to make us a community of educators, each with a special contribution to make?"

Ultimately, each of us must answer that question for him/or herself, even though the process may at times be painful. The following sections suggest some touchstones that individuals may find useful in assessing the adequacy of their perspectives for foreign language curriculum planning.

The moral nature of all education

There is no escaping it. Whether in curriculum planning or in teaching, we bear a singularly heavy moral responsibility for what we do. Whatever else we are about, we are deliberately intervening in the lives of human beings for the purpose of making them something that they would not otherwise become. Of a virtual infinite universe of possible learnings, we choose an extraordinarily small fraction and say: "These you should know because they will lead to a better life, make you a better human being." Presumably, our choices result in salutary consequences for our students' development as educated human beings. But are we sure? Indeed, have we given much serious thought to those profound questions involving the ideal person, the good life, or the good society, that—whether we acknowledge it or not—are the basis of all education? Or, having considered such questions, have we reflected on the congruence between our beliefs about those matters and our daily professional work? This long-range perspective is admittedly difficult to maintain in the arena of contemporary life, where daily survival is often the most pressing issue. But was it not Socrates who spoke of "the unexamined life ..."? Given the role that education plays in society, Socrates' phrase seems especially significant for teachers.

The mission of the school

The issue has been hotly debated at least since Plato wrote *The Republic.* It has been addressed by philosophers, scientists, poets, jurists, and priests. The faculties of all the great universities at one time or another have wrestled with the question. And in democratic America, the issue periodically erupts even on the pages of such unlikely mass-circulation periodicals as *Newsweek* (see Sheils et al., 44).

Since the Industrial Revolution, the mission-of-the-school issue has usually centered upon the competing ideologies of liberal education and professional/vocational training. The work of many historians (e.g., Callahan, 11; Wirth, 51) has established the increasing ascendency of vocational specialization in American schools and colleges during the twentieth century—at the expense, some believe, of liberal education. Belknap and Kuhns's recent report (4, pp. 28–35) cogently argues that our educational system has isolated training from education and has given training the place of honor. Their report attacks the prevalent belief that Americans are overeducated and proposes that many highly trained professionals and powerful public figures "have resoundingly little real education" (p. 3). Royce (41) sums up the situation with the observation that "Contemporary education is evidently more concerned about earning a living than in living itself (p. 189)."

These observations should not be interpreted as a disparagement of professional/vocational training per se. There is nothing inherently shameful about learning to earn a living; certainly, we should all develop the skills that enable us to fulfill a need of society and thus, to receive our share of its life-sustaining goods and services. Foreign language skills are not only useful for teachers, but also, on a rapidly shrinking globe, for those who will play increasingly important roles in world trade, diplomacy, and other international endeavors. Americans are so pragmatically inclined that the foreign language education profession has rarely met with criticism when it was able to justify its existence on vocational grounds.

Are all students in secondary and undergraduate foreign language classes actually planning careers in the foreign language field? Obviously, the answer is "no." Should many more students than are presently enrolled in foreign language courses be studying foreign languages? Surely, most of us would answer in the affirmative. Both of these admittedly rhetorical questions (and their anticipated answers) suggest a nonvocational role for foreign language teaching, and a nonvocational mission for our school and college curricula.

In fact, countless writers on American education—from Emerson to Dewey—have urged that the central (though not the exclusive) concern of our elementary, secondary, and undergraduate programs be the liberal education of students. Unfortunately, the term "liberal education" is only vaguely understood, even by many professional educators. This is due in part to the complexity of the concept, but it also appears to be the consequence of haphazard usage. Over the years the term has acquired a variety of connotations, from "the development of profound wisdom" to "the perpetuation of upperclass dilettantism." Some have even suggested—not without a trace of self-conscious elitism—that the concept can be understood only by those who are themselves liberally educated. In spite of these difficulties, the importance of the concept makes it well worth considering here, at least briefly.

A liberal education

According to Belknap and Kuhns (4), a liberal education "prepares a student not for a defined career as a member of a defined group, but for a whole life as a responsible, self-conscious, and informed member of a whole society" (p. 28). Becker (3) thinks of a liberally educated person as one whose *Weltanschauung* fosters a self-critical and social-critical perspective on the conditions of life. For Emerson (16), a hallmark of liberal education is individual self-reliance, and former British Prime Minister Harold Macmillan contributes this puckish (though not less illuminating) characterization of liberal education which originated with one of his Oxford professors: It simply enables one to detect when a man is talking rot.

As the term suggests, a liberal education frees us. From what? From the unconscious psychological constraints that our time and place impose. It helps us to escape the subtle effects of enculturation, to understand how those taken-for-granted beliefs that constitute society's conventional wisdom govern our behavior. Because it illuminates the web of environmental forces that determine the shape and direction of our lives, liberal education frees us from the grip of unexamined cultural imperatives, knee-jerk responses, parochialism, and philistinism. As we cope with the issues and problems of the contemporary scene, a liberal education enables us to rely on knowledge and intelligence as the basis for decision making: We do not react, we initiate; we are not determined, we choose. This is really what freedom means.

But in the fast-paced circles of corporate efficiency, where the focus is on getting the job done, liberal education seems effete—something of an embarrassment, if not downright troublesome. Exxon, General Dynamics, and IBM all tell us that their employees do not need a liberal education (although a good argument could be made that they really do). What is needed, they say, are people who are technically tooled up—competent specialists in the appropriate applied fields. To be perfectly honest, when the chips are down, most people polled believe that liberal education may be all right if you are wealthy and want to dabble in such esoteric matters as French literature, Russian civilization, or Chinese history; but in 1978, they say, "success" really depends upon specialized professional training.

Who needs liberal education? Contemporary America's answer seems to be "no one," but a broad (and realistic) perspective suggests a different viewpoint. Lewis Thomas, author of *Lives of a Cell* and a trustee of the Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center, remarked at a recent meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science that these are not the best of times for the human mind. Commenting on our lives and our world, he went on to say:

> All sorts of things seem to be turning out wrong, and the century seems to be slipping through our fingers here at the end, with almost all promises unfilled. I cannot begin to guess at all the causes of our cultural sadness, not even the most important ones, but I can think of one thing that is wrong with us and eats away at us: we do not know enough about ourselves.
>
> We are ignorant about how we work, about where we fit in, and most of all about the enormous, imponderable system of life in which we are embedded as working parts .... It is a new experience for all of us. It's unfamiliar ground.
>
> Just think, two centuries ago we could explain everything about everything, out of pure reason, and now most of that elaborate and harmonious structure has come apart before our eyes.
>
> We are dumb (quoted in Boyer, 9, p. 8).

Dr. Thomas's appeal is an eloquent one. It is an appeal for a broader perspective. It tells us that human beings need a liberal education so that they can make crucial decisions on the basis of broad knowledge and wisdom rather than narrow technical expertise. Unless the curricula of our schools direct us away from our splintered dumbness, the century will undoubtedly slip through our fingers. Indeed, prominent thinkers such as C. P. Snow (45, 46) have argued that the very survival of humankind depends upon the general diffusion of liberal education!

And so, we come full circle on the mission-of-the-school question, which in the broadest sense is answerable only in terms of liberal education. It seems almost fatuous to have to comment on the role of foreign language study in this enterprise, but, for the record, let us state that the contributions of foreign language study to the liberal *Weltanschauung* are unique—even, some would say, indispensable. This does not mean that the foreign language program will play no role in professional renewal—i.e., in the preprofessional and professional training of foreign language specialists. It simply means that the distinction needs to be kept clear and a balance needs to be maintained. As a touchstone for maintaining a broad perspective, the mission-of-the-school issue can help to clarify the general character of foreign language programs and to maintain congruence between goals and practices. In short, foreign language teachers need to beware of dealing with their students only as potential specialists; they need to keep in focus the liberating qualities of foreign language and culture, and, for their students' sakes, capitalize on its rich potential. Such a stance does not imply flaccidity or lack of rigor. Excellence in liberal studies demands as much discipline and commitment as does the most rigorous professional training. In this regard, an epigram from Belknap and Kuhns (4, p. 3) is worth noting: "Education without training is impossible, but . . . training without education is disastrous."

Maintaining a vigorous foreign language influence in the curriculum

The sections above have argued the need for a broad perspective in the development of foreign language programs. The importance of foreign language study to the liberal education of all students and the need to prepare competent foreign language specialists for a variety of professional positions were both stressed. But these functions cannot be well served without the understanding and support of many schools and community constituencies, some of which may not appreciate the many roles of foreign language study, either in education or contemporary civilization. For example, one large Ohio city recently met a financial exigency by simply eliminating all foreign language programs in its junior high schools. As was earlier emphasized, educators exist not in a vacuum, but in a dynamic context that has a constant impact on their activities.

With the possible exception of classical antiquities, no subject area has had to defend itself more regularly against attacks of "impracticality" and "irrelevance" than the foreign languages. Nor has the source of these attacks been confined to the uneducated. Even colleagues in other disciplines (sometimes, to be sure, out of self-interest and survival in budgetary crises) have advocated cost cutting at the expense of the "less necessary" foreign languages. Such challenges cannot be met effectively on an *ad hoc* basis. The interests of foreign language programs and faculty are intimately and complexly linked to other programs and faculties, as well as to school and community organizations, politics, social norms, and other dynamic variables. Thus, foreign language personnel need to develop familiarity with the context of their programs if, as a liberally educated constituency, they expect to have a continuing influence. Otherwise, language programs and faculty will be perennially buffeted by the winds of historical accident, having little effect on their own direction or that of the school and community.

It should be made clear that neither conspiracy nor Machiavellian tactics is being advocated here. Rather, we are calling for intelligent decision making based on a thorough knowledge of variables operating in the environment. This process should take place within a framework of ethical principles; to put it another way, the preservation of foreign language interests does not justify just *any* tactics or action. The fostering of language by this process does not necessarily detract from the influence of other constituencies, or from the school or community commonweal. As each constituency learns more about the others and about their functioning in the total school environment, the democratic processes of give-and-take will expand, resulting in a more open organizational climate. Understanding how organized systems work and using this knowledge in daily decision making will help language personnel not only to preserve the interests and integrity of their own enterprise, but to serve effectively the needs of the total school community. It is toward these ends that the following sections are presented.

How are schools organized?

An analysis of educational units as organized systems involves attention to the economic, political, psychological, anthropological, and sociological aspects of their operation. Moreover, the task requires the application of some sort of conceptual framework that identifies and clarifies the influential subsystems of the over-all organization. For example, organizations may be analyzed in terms of their authority structures, communications systems, informal groupings, and so on, to say nothing of the more familiar categories of students, faculty, administration, and curriculum. These considerations demonstrate the complexity of school organizations and suggest that an exhaustive treatment of the topic is well beyond the scope of this chapter.

Foreign language personnel, happily, need not become experts in school organization to make their influence felt. Acquaintance with even a few major organizational features can be enormously helpful. Some of these features are already quite well known, but their effect on system functioning has been largely overlooked. For example, as Wayland (49) points out, schools have traditionally been organized on the assumption that teachers do not need any substantial block of time free from students during the school day for self-directed curriculum work. Even when such time is allocated, the resources necessary to capitalize on its productive use are not ordinarily provided. The consequences of such organizational shortsightedness have been dramatic, but very little understood.

Another widespread assumption about school organizations is that the principal, as chief executive, is in charge of school operations. Indeed, polls of school faculties show that when teachers are asked, "Who is in charge here?," they overwhelmingly name the principal. Closer observation in many schools indicates that the principal tends to be named mainly because of his *visibility* as chief executive, when, in fact, decision-making authority may reside in another individual or in a group. Some schools even operate without benefit of *any* decision-making authority. They tend to resemble perpetual-motion bureaucracies in which specialized role players mechanically carry out their functions according to prescribed regulations.

Organizational features are important in determining the quality and conditions of school life and curriculum development. The remainder of this section identifies and explores four basic characteristics of school organizations and suggests some ways in which they may be employed to support foreign language interests.

Formal and informal structures

Schools are technically defined as complex organizations because they simultaneously manifest two specific characteristics: a formal structure and an informal structure. The formal structure is defined by its "fabric of roles." These roles are filled by individuals whose behavior, idiosyncrasies notwithstanding, is expected to reflect well-established patterns: Teachers teach, counselors counsel, and students study. Moreover, the roles remain constant even though changes in personnel occur because of retirement, promotion, termination, or graduation. The individual who occupies a recently vacated role is expected not only to meet the role's established behavioral prescriptions, but to assume the relationships his or her predecessor had with other role players in the organization. For example, a new French teacher, like his or her predecessor, will teach French, attend faculty meetings, and monitor study hall. He or she will also follow the directives of the principal and order students to be quiet, but will not give directives to the principal or take orders from students because such relationships are not part of the established fabric of roles.

The formal structure of the school organization is manifested in the ubiquitous "organizational chart." This device describes the lines of formal authority in the organization and indicates the boundaries of administrative units. While such charts are helpful for identifying the skeletal essence of the school's *formal* organization, they entirely omit its *informal* organizations (plural). Research indicates that the latter structures can be extremely influential determiners of system dynamics.

The pervasive influence of informal organizations in schools is based on the fact that roles—teacher, counselor, principal—are filled by people with unique personalities and various psychological needs. As Owens (35, p. 50) points out, "in the final analysis in order to get the organization's work done, the people in the various roles (i.e., the *role incumbents*) must meet face-to-face and interact" (p. 50). These interactions involve complex personalities—with needs, fears, positive feelings, hostilities—and not just roles. Thus, role incumbents seek membership in a variety of informal groups that very often cut across role-membership lines. These "primary groups," as they are sometimes called, have a wide variety of bases: marital status, sex, age, (the "old timers" or the "young Turks"), Friday afternoon beer group, lunch companions, bowling team, etc. Work orientation also serves as a nucleus for some groups: teachers of the same grade level, those whose classrooms are adjacent, or, of particular interest here, those who belong to the same department. Primary group affiliations reward individual members with many universally sought psychological satisfactions—belongingness, security, and self-esteem, to name but a few.

The efficacy of informal organizations in the functioning of schools has been well established by an abundance of research. What is not so generally appreciated (or so deliberately capitalized on) is the latent power of informal groups, especially when two or more cooperate to achieve a common goal. Indeed, research suggests that the official authority of the principal as defined on the organizational chart is greatly altered when it is confronted by resistance from one or more informal primary groups.

The effective marshaling of informal groups to influence the larger organization depends to a great degree on the system of linkages that exist in the informal group structure. The work of Iannocconne (24), who has done substantial research on informal organizations in schools, is quite helpful here. He has found that informal primary groups are linked in two ways: 1) when a teacher is a member of two different groups, and 2) when two teachers, each of whom is a member of a different group, interact regularly. In these situations the teachers who function as connectors between groups are obviously important factors in any attempt to unite primary groups in support of an issue.

The formal organization of schools is certainly not inert or impotent; it is a force to be dealt with. But so is the informal organization. In fact, we have seen that the informal organization is a vigorous—sometimes even dominant—influence on organizational dynamics. More particularly, the informal organization, judiciously utilized, can exert an enormous influence on school curriculum policy. This suggests that foreign language faculty, as a constituency of the larger organization, can increase its influence by 1) studying the informal organization of its schools, 2) identifying key linkages among primary groups, and 3) marshaling multi-group support for foreign language interests. This is obviously more easily said than done; it requires substantial commitment and effort. That is, however, the price that a worthwhile cause exacts.

The school as a bureaucracy

Although the bureaucracy as an administrative system has fallen into considerable disrepute today—the word "bureaucrat" is used as a term of derision—it was once regarded as a highly salutary social invention. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, organizations were held together by charismatic leaders to whom group members owed their allegiance, or by tradition, in which case managerial positions were allocated on the basis of inherited rank. Subordinates were subject to the caprice, bias, emotion, irrationality, and favoritism of their superiors. In the nineteenth century, the Industrial Revolution gave rise to huge complex business organizations whose management required a more orderly and rational administrative system. Out of this milieu developed the bureaucracy, an organizational form in which positions (roles) are defined in functional terms, and the personnel to fill them are recruited on the basis of their technical competence to discharge the functions. Presthus (38) identifies some commonly recognized characteristics of bureaucracies as follows:

- Fixed jurisdictional areas regulated by policies and rules
- Hierarchical levels of authority that ensure an ordered supervisory system
- Administration by written documents
- Administration by trained officials
- Administration according to stable comprehensive policies (p. 5).

"Bureaucracy," we may note, is the term usually employed to refer to the *formal* structure of the school organization.

A properly functioning bureaucracy results in highly desirable consequences. First, a wide variety of services are provided systematically and efficiently to a large and heterogenous clientele. Nowhere is this better demonstrated than in the vast array of services delivered by a large comprehensive high school (or in the broadest terms, by the educational system of the United States!). Second, bureaucracy is predictable. Its rules are public, its lines of authority are clear, and the roles of its personnel are well defined. Predictability provides security for personnel: Recognized rules and procedures make it possible for teachers to know not only how they will be spending their professional day, but also what they may *not* be required to do (e.g., fetch coffee for the principal). When compared with the extreme unpredictability faced by members of the court of the Roman emperor Caligula, this bureaucratic feature seems an especially important advantage. Third, bureaucracy is impersonal. Though some regard this as a fault, in fact the impersonality of bureaucracy protects workers and clients from the caprice of personal bias; its rules and procedures are evenly applied to all. Finally, because uniform rules are routinely applied by specialists, bureaucracy has the capacity to process thousands of cases rapidly; it is expeditious.

As we are all well aware, bureaucracy does not always function properly, and a good deal of study has been devoted to what researchers have come to call "the pathologies of bureaucracies and bureaucrats." Sometimes, rules become more important than the problems that they are intended to address. An example is a student's suspension by a principal because of an offense such as truancy. Bureaucracy can also induce unthinking conformity so that otherwise sensitive human beings become routinized robots. Departmental agreement on the automatic "F" for undone assignments—without exception—illustrates this kind of mindless collective acquiescence. Pathology also intervenes when innovations and fresh ideas are stifled by bureaucratic rigidity, or by the inordinate delays that occur in their transmission through the hierarchy. Supervisors whose standard response to a suggested innovation is, "That's a good idea, but . . ." are certainly discouraging, but no less so than those who require that the idea be written up as a proposal (in quadruplicate) for submission to the administrative hierarchy. Finally, bureaucracy has a built-in tendency—and capacity—to resist change. Anyone who has attempted to enact a curriculum change in a large school probably has met this obstacle and understands it all too well.

Bureaucracy and the foreign language teacher

How can this thumbnail sketch of bureaucracy help language personnel? Besides underscoring the impact (both good and bad) that bureaucratic organization can have on the school climate and program, it provides some rudimentary information about bureaucracies that faculty may use as they consider strategies for counteracting pathologies in their own schools. Broader understanding of the characteristics and dynamics of bureaucracy is, of course, desirable (Bennis, 5; Blau, 7, 8; Presthus, 38); equally important is the willingness of faculty members to initiate dialogue aimed at diagnosing the bureaucratic pathologies of their own schools and to act on this information to ensure the proper operation of the bureaucracy—i.e., to see to it that the needs of students and staff are served rather than the other way around.

While the characteristics of a particular organizational form certainly have an effect on the quality of its members' existence, in the last analysis it is the individual behavior of the membership that determines organizational climate. Bureaucratic pathologies develop because people allow them to, not because they are endemic to bureaucracy and are unavoidable. Bureaucracy may have a tendency and capacity to inhibit change, but experience shows that bureaucracies *do* change, and often for the better. To contend that a particular bureaucracy is an impenetrable maze of regulations and red tape, impossible to overcome, is merely to acquiesce in one's own presumed powerlessness. This attitude is self–defeating, an enactment of the self-fulfilling prophecy.

The schools in which we work are, to a greater or lesser degree, bureaucracies. Experience tells us that some of them work better than others, and perhaps many would even agree with those students of organization who contend that they are essential to our increasingly complex (educational) way of life. Whatever the case, it is unlikely that bureaucracies will soon be replaced by some as yet unimagined organizational form, so we had best learn to confront them, capitalize on their humanizing characteristics, and use them to support foreign language interests.

The school as political arena

For many years it was naïvely assumed that curriculum was made by the professionals (teachers, administrators, and perhaps curriculum consultants). Opinions of parents or students might have been solicited, but in the last analysis, there seemed little doubt that control was vested with the educational establishment. More recently, curriculum development has come to be viewed as a policy-making activity which is essentially a political process. (The term "political" is here broadly defined as "the set of interactions that influence and shape the authoritative allocation of values" (Scribner, 42, p. 22).) Pellegrin (37) concludes: "... the greatest stimuli to changes in education originate in sources external to the field ... the sources of innovation lie largely outside the local community, and in most cases outside the education profession" (p. 15). Kirst and Walker (26, p. 480) suggest that curriculum development is not merely "influenced" by political phenomena, but may itself be a political process. The prestigious National Society for the Study of Education has conferred official recognition on this point of view by making *The Politics of Education* the subject of its 1977 yearbook (Scribner, 42).

The impact of political factors on the health and well-being of foreign language programs may be discerned by imagining the following scenarios:

- The North Central Association of Schools and Colleges requires that high schools offer at least three years of instruction in three different foreign languages to qualify for accreditation.
- The State Department of Education requires all students in college preparatory programs to take at least three years of a foreign language.
- The federal government enacts legislation allocating $5 million over a three year period for the development of new Russian language curricula.
- The Council for Basic Education, The Chamber of Commerce, and the Ford Foundation join forces in a two year lobbying and mass media effort whose objective is doubling enrollments in foreign language programs.

Such scenarios are admittedly improbable given the present state of affairs, but they are not—at least in part—beyond the realm of possibility were the language profession to engage in concerted political activism (a prospect that, in itself, would require considerable political activity to bring about). Consider such actualities as the following:

- The vocational education lobby (with strong support from the AFL-CIO and the National Association of Manufacturers) has played an enormous role at both state and national levels in procuring legislation and funding favorable to the development of their programs. Indeed, these programs are among the most expensive in the curriculum and could not possibly exist without generous expenditures from state and national sources.
- Private accrediting agencies (e.g., the North Central Association) require that schools meet a variety of minimum standards, many of which are based on recommendations from special interest groups such as the American Library Association.
- State departments of education require that certain courses (e.g., American History, Free-Enterprise Economics) be taken by all students; these requirements are often consequences of political lobbying by groups such as the Daughters of the American Revolution and the John Birch Society.
- Major curriculum changes involving attention to racism and sexism have occurred largely as a result of lobbying by black organizations and women's groups. These efforts influenced legislation mandating change in curricular practices.

These examples of the efficacy of political activity at state and national levels have their analogues in the local community. Few teachers are unfamiliar with the political activity of local groups eager to proscribe certain authors (like J. D. Salinger or Kurt Vonnegut, Jr.) or to ensure that the "theory" of creation gets equal billing with the theory of evolution in biology classes. It is somewhat surprising that the effectiveness of such sporadic local activity has not suggested to educators that substantial reservoirs of latent political power reside in the local community and that a variety of local constituencies would be responsive to an effort to educate them in questions of educational interest. It is widely recognized that the failure of many school levies can be traced to political neglect on the part of the local educational establishment, while the surprising success of others appears to be the direct result of concerted political activism by school personnel. Similarly, local language programs often languish because they are virtually invisible in the community at large (as compared, for example, to science programs that field annual science fairs, music programs that present concerts, or English programs that stage dramatic presentations and produce school newspapers and literary magazines). This suggests a need for public relations activities that demonstrate the importance of language education and that dramatize students' language achievements.

A needed goal: Visibility

To protect its interests optimally at the local level, language personnel in all schools, elementary through senior high, should band together, "learn the community," meet regularly, and plan a long-term program of political action. One point of entry might be the PTA—if that organization is respected and influential. Others include local business and labor groups, ethnic and religious clubs, respected community leaders (e.g., the newspaper editor), and professional associations. It is not unusual for a foreign language faculty to count among its members individuals who belong to one or more community groups, or who are personally acquainted with key community individuals. The potential of these associations should not be underestimated, although the teaching profession has made little use of them in the past.

If, as we have seen, the school and many of its curricular substructures are governed in significant ways by political activity at the national, state, and local levels, it should come as no surprise that the internal dynamics of the school itself turn out to be heavily political. That such is the case was strongly suggested in previous sections on the dynamics of formal and informal structures of school organization. It is instructive to note in closing the conclusions of Kimbrough (25), which are based on several case studies of the decision-making process in individual schools:

> Informal groups were found . . . to transcend the impact of changes in the administration of schools. A great difference in influence existed among the members of each faculty studied. Interaction ties that are important in decision-making activity were not always confined to the school staff membership itself, since some leaders of the staff were able

> to communicate effectively with persons of influence outside the faculty (p. 253).
> Informal influence structure . . . is often a source of power in initiating important actions through the formal organization. The informal groups often generate enough power to bring about significant changes in the nature of the formal organization itself (p. 254).

Organizational research appears to leave little doubt that the future of foreign language education depends to a large degree on the capacity of advocates to organize and lobby their case effectively in the school, community, state, and national political arenas.

The concept of organizational climate

Another aspect of school systems which affects the quality and conditions of school life is organizational climate. As Halpin (21) notes, the general notion of school organizational climate is implicit in such comments as, "You don't have to be in a school very long before you feel the atmosphere of a place" (p. 4). Although this "atmosphere" of a school is relatively intangible, few would deny its existence. In one school faculty seem at ease with one another, relaxed and confident; in another, there is a sense of tension. In yet another, there seems to be an emphasis on decorum and formality, while in a fourth, staff and students interact casually, on a first-name basis. These differences—often subtle—characterize a distinctive psychological environment in organizations that is sometimes compared to personality in individuals. In fact, Halpin (20, p. 131) states that "personality is to the individual what Organizational Climate is to the organization" (p. 131).

Dimensions of organizational climate

While "personality" may be an apt metaphor and a quite useful device for helping us to grasp the notion of organizational climate, it is too imprecise a concept for researchers to use in their investigations. Consequently, most recent research has dealt with organizational climate more specifically—in terms of the dynamic interaction between the needs of the organization and the needs of its individual members. In this connection, it has been common to refer to the relationship of the nomothetic (organizational) dimension and the idiographic (personal) dimension. A desirable organizational climate would be one in which organizational needs, goals, and demands (the nomothetic dimension) closely approximate each individual's needs, goals, and demands (the idiographic dimension). Since an organization in which nomothetic and idiographic needs are exactly parallel is highly improbable, Argyris (1) suggests that desirable organizational climate can be fostered by finding ways to manage needs conflicts and keep them within tolerable limits. Procedures for accomplishing this include: the development of an interpersonal climate that permits people to admit that a conflict exists, to talk about it, and to work toward reduction of its causes. This requires an unthreatening and open environment, without which people tend to hide conflict. As Owens (35) notes, "if teachers feel that it is 'disloyal' or 'unprofessional' to discuss shortcomings in the school, it is likely that they will indeed avoid discussing these shortcomings or dealing openly with them" (p. 170).

Organizational climate has also been studied in terms of informal group structure. In one study of an elementary school, Iannacconne (24) found that the norms of an informal group frustrated the individual (idiosyncratic) goals of some teachers. Similarly, Willower and Jones (50) discovered in a junior high school study that the ideas and goals that young, new teachers bring with them from college are quickly abandoned when they come into conflict with the group norms (the established way of doing things) of experienced teachers. These investigators note that the new teachers had three options: Go along with the informal group's norms, leave the organization, or engage in conflict with the older teachers. In such situations, most individuals elect the first option, some the second, but far too few are able—however much they prefer to stand by their beliefs—to tolerate the third option because the quality of the organizational climate makes nonconformity (conflict) so painful to endure. This aspect of organizational climate raises at least two important considerations:

1) For the individual whose needs and beliefs conflict with those of the organization, the question of commitment to the belief must be confronted, and a decision of conscience must be made. Will he or she accede to group demands and cynically play the game? Or muster that courage he or she can and stand firm?

2) For all the members of the group, the question of organizational climate must be confronted. What kind of group is it that makes life painful, even intolerable, for those whose goals and beliefs do not conform to group norms?

In view of the foregoing, it would appear highly desirable for faculty and administrators to assess the quality of organizational climate in their school. This can be done informally, of course, and dialogue among intelligent adults is often entirely adequate for identifying and correcting conditions that produce conflict, avoidance behavior, cynicism, and so on. However, a number of instruments have been developed for assessing the organizational climate of schools. One of these is the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) designed by Halpin (20). Although the assistance of a professional familiar with the technique should be secured if the instrument is to be administered formally, much useful information relative to the informal assessment of organizational climate may be obtained by consulting this source.

Another instrument for measuring organizational climate in schools is the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) which has been used in the schools of Syracuse (Steinhoff 47) and New York (Owens and Steinhoff, 36).

In closing this section, it may be worth noting that foreign language faculty, before embarking on an assessment of the school's organizational climate, may find it surprisingly instructive to examine the climate of their own subgroup, an enterprise far more manageable than a whole-school undertaking. Is there a sense of esprit? Intimacy? Consensus of purpose? Are conflicts and other existing sources of friction evaded so that ill will or hostility smolders beneath the surface? Do department members "play games" with one another? Are there "hidden agendas" at departmental meetings?

Questions involving the very core of interpersonal relations are delicate, to say the least, and often require substantial courage to face candidly. But if the foreign language constituency is to make its influence felt in the school, it will have to be sure that its own house is in order. Obviously, a negative departmental climate will have negative effects on the foreign language program, but as noted earlier, it may also elicit negative responses from the rest of the organization, and to that extent undermine the department's influence in the school.

Building on experience: How effective are current practices in school organizations?

"When God wanted to create the world, the conservative angels, with tears in their eyes, shouted to him, 'Lord, do not destroy chaos!' " (de Méré, quoted in Becker, 3, p. 33). The quotation tells us nothing that we did not already know, but it underscores the immensity of the problem. It is indeed ironic that educational systems are more resistant to change than many other types of organizations—e.g., industrial or commercial enterprises. Among the principal reasons, according to Miles (33), is the fact that the major portion of the staff's effort goes into the routine operations and maintenance of existing relationships, and little energy is left for matters of diagnosis, planning, innovation, deliberate change, and growth. If this is true, we should profit from a critical examination of present organizational practices.

Morrish (34, Chapter 8) identifies some two dozen practices and conditions in contemporary school organizations that inhibit growth and change. Among the most germane for the development of foreign language curricula are the following:

1 *Separation of members and units:* The tendency of faculty members to insulate themselves from one another was discussed previously, but the reappearance of this practice on Morrish's list underscores its importance

in the organizational scheme of things. Because of their isolation, teachers' individual failures and successes have little impact on other faculty members; indeed, it may even be noted that attempts of individual teachers to communicate particular successes are often met with skepticism and cynicism by their colleagues. Failures, of course, are rarely communicated, even though we know that significant learning and future success are frequently based on past failure. Teachers do communicate, of course, but it has been fairly well established that they do not discuss their teaching. According to Chesler et al. (12), "In most schools teachers practice their own methods—rarely hearing, or even caring, if one of their colleagues is experimenting with some new teaching device or technique." The practice of professional isolation occurs not only across departments, but within them as well.

2 *Hierarchy and differential status:* Practices perceived as necessary for the effective functioning of the bureaucracy are routinely accepted in most school organizations today. These practices inhibit innovative curriculum developments in many ways. For example, teachers and administrators are rewarded not for initiating and implementing innovations, but rather for their stable, predictable behavior. Boat rockers are not generally valued. Hierarchies also tend to discourage the upward flow if information. For the most part, faculty members are reluctant to propose a curriculum innovation to the hierarchy unless 1) it has been demonstrated effective by hard data (which can rarely be the case with an innovation), 2) it reflects favorably on themselves, and 3) it concurs with the educational policies of the hierarchy.

3 *Lack of procedures for innovation:* As Morrish (34) notes, teachers have "no fully institutionalized procedures for learning about new practices of their colleagues ..." (p. 69). Teachers have not had the opportunity to experience the kind of human relations training that industry has used to stimulate awareness of, and openness to, new ideas and methods. This problem, undoubtedly, is intimately related to their overwhelming preoccupation with routine maintenance activities.

Bailey (2) identifies at random some sixteen practices that inhibit organizational self-renewal in schools. Among the most striking are the following:

1 Team leaders (or department chairpersons) inherit their jobs in perpetuity.
2 Daily operations are dependent on the principal, so he is always close to his desk.
3 The principal and only the principal rates the teachers.
4 New teachers are hired by the principal and the district office.
5 The staff gripes about students in the teachers' lounge.
6 The principal observes everyone for thirty minutes twice a year.
7 The administration takes a beating in the teachers' lounge.
8 The staff races the students to the parking lot.

Systems of inquiry

Perhaps the most incisive assessment of current practices in school organizations is that of Pritzkau (39) whose analysis is more coherent than others, because he places it in the framework of "closed" and "open" systems of inquiry. In the most general terms, a system of inquiry refers to the constellation of mental postures and processes employed by an individual to assess self and environment for decision-making purposes. According to Pritzkau, the closed system of inquiry is characterized by "poverty in ideas and meanings" and "narrow routes to authentic existence," habits of thought that result in a condition of "out-of-awareness" (p. 27). Becker (3) uses the term "alienation" to describe this condition, while Royce (41) prefers "encapsulation." Whatever the terminology, these authors are referring to a general condition in which individuals believe that they have an accurate perception of reality when, in fact, because of various limitations, they have only a partial and highly distorted image of what is really "out there." This condition has its roots in human physiology (we are able to perceive only within the limits of our highly limited physical senses), internal psychology (we perceive through the filter of our unconscious common needs for safety, belongingness, self-esteem, etc.), and unconscious culturally induced bias (we perceive ourselves and our environment only as they are edited by this bias)—the result of the socialization process that began on the day we were born. To the extent that individuals act on their perceptions, unaware of the distortions resulting from these three perceptual filters, they are operating in a closed system of inquiry. Decisions based on inaccurate or erroneous perceptions of the facts obviously tend to result in undesirable consequences. Less obvious, but no less important, is the fact that goals which seem desirable (or necessary) in the light of such distorted perceptions, may not be at all desirable from a more objective standpoint. Incidentally, one of the consequences of a liberal education is the illumination of these unconscious editors of perception so that their distorting effects can be taken into account in decision-making processes.

Needless to say, our society in general, and our schools in particular, seem to operate on the closed system of inquiry. One manifestation of this is the yawning chasm that often exists between what we say (and really think!) we believe, and the beliefs that are demonstrated in our actions. As Mayer (30) notes, "We say we believe in beauty; yet most of our cities [and schools] are ugly. We maintain that art is a way of life; yet the poet has no audience. We praise the role of reason, but reason is seldom used in the discussion of social and political issues" (pp. 356–57). This is not hypocrisy in the sense of deliberate pretense; it is the unrecognized contradiction that results from the closed system of inquiry.

Pritzkau (39) identifies and examines many current school practices in terms of the closed system of inquiry. Although space permits only a few to be included here, their role in maintaining the *status quo* will be amply demonstrated.

1 *Curriculum development practices:* Curriculum development projects usually originate at some upper stratum of the hierarchy. The machinery formulated for the project ordinarily includes a sizable portion of—if not the entire—faculty. Committees are formed, and everyone does his or her part. The flurry of activity is often an end in itself: "Everyone in our school is involved in curriculum development." But this curriculum development usually is not intimately identified with the basic element of classroom interaction. The goal is frequently just to get something down on paper: Topics to be covered, lists of required readings, projects for extra credit, and, in recent years, those interminable lists of behavioral objectives. Without even realizing it, staff members are separated from reality and become role players in the "game of education."

The extent to which present curriculum development practices coopt school personnel is suggested by Morrish (34). He observes that although educational organizations offer a good deal of lip service to curriculum change and innovation, very little real change ever actually occurs. In fact, the school organization has incorporated "change" into its normal way of doing business to the extent that it has neutralized whatever real potential for change exists. What professional in education is not familiar with the perennial parade of bandwagons that seduces us into thinking that dramatic change is in the offing? Team teaching, individualized instruction, values clarification, competency-based teaching, affective education, and on and on. As the French say: "The more we change, the more we stay the same."

2 *School-keeping practices:* Pritzkau (39) speculates that "the greatest poverty pocket in education may result from the willing acquiescence to the system on the part of the staff" (p. 31). As suggested in a prior section, bureaucracies are predicated on smooth and efficient operation. Because people are socialized by their environments, teachers tend to accept and internalize efficiency as a bureaucratic priority. Thus, they become happily settled in entrenched arrangements. Pritzkau describes the process:

> They find security in going through the paces—the standards, the units—satisfied with forward movement but with very little attention to what the movement does to them and their pupils. Teachers assume that they are making progress and will resist any attempt at raising questions. . . . In fact, the system has unwittingly contrived to put teachers, children, and other people into a state of out-of-awareness to what is real (p. 31).

3 *Scheduling practices:* Since bureaucracies operate on the principle of efficiency, everything must have its slot. The main goal seems to be the tidy ordering of the program. This priority on scheduling often precludes consideration of alternative curriculum possibilities or improved instructional ar-

rangements. How do teachers respond to current scheduling practices? Although some may express dissatisfaction with the rigidity of the schedule, most eventually fall into their assigned slots, and often even relish the opportunity to work in a stable and efficient organization.

4 *"Practical" practices:* Because bureaucracies prize efficiency, they reward those members of the organization who are "practical"—the ones who "get things done." The [illegible] is suspect, a threat to the system. Such expressions as "It sounds good in theory, but it won't work in practice," "I'm looking for *answers*," and "I think that's an idea we're not yet ready for," all reflect this antitheoretical bias. In fact, all practice originates with some theory, but often the theoretical base is unrecognized.

Theorizers are usually viewed as a threat to the organization because theorizing stimulates change. Being "practical," on the other hand, really translates into advocating the familiar, the *status quo*. Thus, the practical ones keep the theorizing ones from upsetting the smooth operation of the organization. Procedures that are followed because they are "practical," often turn out on critical examination to be obsolescent.

5 *"Realistic" practices:* If a staff member questions a school practice—for example, the maintenance of study halls—he or she is often told, "Yes, I know what you mean, but we have to be realistic." The person making this response rarely stops to examine its underlying assumptions. As Pritzkau (39) notes, "the statement implies a 'stop-page' condition in thinking" (p. 41). What this verbalized "realistic" represents may be merely the familiar, even the absurd. Unexamined concepts of the realistic are the stock in trade of the closed system of inquiry. They are represented by such school staples as "subject matter coverage," "graduation credits," "hall passes," "library permission," "accreditation standards," and "certification requirements."

The point is not that all "realistic" practices should be abandoned (although many probably should be), but that they have become so prominent in our perceptual fields that they blind us to the real or the authentic. The degree to which the "realistic" blinds us may be illustrated best by reference to the recent war in Vietnam. When antiwar activists in the early sixties urged that the United States simply declare a victory and withdraw, they were exhorted to "be realistic." A few years, thousands of lives, and millions of dollars later, that very course of action was taken.

The effect of realistic practices can be generalized to the closed system of inquiry as currently practiced in school organizations. It operates to obscure and distort our perception of the real. It confines our minds to routine patterns of thought, narrow and constricted meanings, and the absurdities and obsolescences that constitute the conventional wisdom. It prevents us from seeing the alternatives and possibilities out of which arise expanded understanding of human experience. In the end, the closed system of inquiry—the milieu of the school—restricts accessibility to our rich cultural content to the point that it makes us dumb.

How effective, then *are* current school practices in school organizations?

In many ways, they serve the needs of society well by turning out large numbers of individuals who perform reasonably successfully in their jobs, are voracious consumers and avid sports fans, and most important, are not persistent askers of embarrassing questions. These qualities, however, are not the qualities that will keep this century from slipping through our fingers. Nor are they the qualities that one ordinarily attributes to the liberally educated individual.

It is possible that the long-term decline of foreign language programs has in some way been connected with their failure to further the vocational drift of American schools. Although foreign language study can heighten cultural awareness and broaden human perspective, it is not, in terms of its cash value—the sense usually intended—very "practical." By turning a broader perspective on current practices and dealing with school situations from an organizational standpoint, however, language faculty may find that they can exert more influence than they dreamed possible. As Kirst and Walker (26) observe, "The fact of the matter is that any group with sufficient talent and resources can . . . start a trend that will sweep . . . other sources either aside or along" (p. 498).

Building for Success: How can foreign language faculty transcend organizations and stimulate change?

The concept of organizational health

The concept of organizational health has interested a large number of educational writers (e.g., Hoyle, 23; Lawler, 28; Miles, 33; Morrish, 34; and Owens, 35). Among the most influential is Miles, who describes organizational health as the ability not only to function effectively, but to develop and grow into a more fully functioning organization. This state/process requires such organizational characteristics as awareness of potential innovation, continuing willingness to examine organizational procedures, and the capacity to adopt innovations in a way that optimizes their effectiveness. Expanding on these general characteristics, Miles (33, pp. 18–21) identifies ten specific properties that distinguish organizational health:

1 *Goal focus:* Members of the organization understand and accept the organization's goals. When faculty comments such as "*They* say, but *I* believe . . ." are heard, consensus on organizational goals is probably lacking.

2 *Communication adequacy:* Communication flows freely and without distortion, vertically, horizontally, and to and from the surrounding environment. Of particular importance here is 1) that organization members can obtain the information they need without undue exertion

of effort, 2) that upward communication is as free as downward communication, and 3) that interdepartment and interschool communication occurs regularly as a matter of form.

3 *Optimal power equalization:* Organization subordinates can influence upward, and can observe their superiors influencing *their* superiors. Thus, the hierarchical units of the organization stand in an interdependent relationship with one another, with minimal coercion by status.

4 *Resources utilization:* All members of the organization are learning, growing, and developing (i.e., feel "self-actualizing") as they effectively do their jobs.

5 *Cohesiveness:* Organization members like the organization, feel a part of it, want to remain in it, want to be influenced by it, and want to have an influence on it.

6 *Morale:* Members have a feeling of well-being and satisfaction about the organization.

7 *Innovativeness:* This trait refers to the organization's tendency to invent new goals and procedures, to grow and develop, and to become more differentiated as time passes.

8 *Autonomy:* The organization does not respond passively to its environment, but determines its own goals and procedures as a consequence of open interaction with external circumstances.

9 *Adaptation:* This quality refers to the organization's capacity to accomplish corrective change more quickly than its environment.

10 *Problem-solving adequacy:* Not only is it important for organizations to develop effective mechanisms for solving problems, it is essential that they institutionalize the means for sensing and perceiving them—as free from distortion as possible.

Many of Miles's characteristics of organizational health bear a striking resemblance to desirable traits of individual personality. This resemblance may bring to mind the analogy drawn between organizational climate and personality. To extend the analogy, we may consider organizational health as a particular type of organizational climate—one that is analogous to individual psychological well-being. It is interesting in this connection to note that Halpin (20) has postulated six organizational climates, which he characterizes as follows: Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal, and Closed. Although he concedes that this continuum of organizational profiles is not necessarily linear, he does view the Open-Closed contrast as meaningful to the extent that the Open terminus of the continuum suggests organizational health, while the Closed terminus suggests pathology.

Partly as a result of the apparent correspondence between organizational climate and individual personality, Owens (35) is prompted to draw on Kubie's (27) description of individual (psychological) health as an apt characterization of organizational health. Kubie writes:

> The measure of health is flexibility, the freedom to learn through experience, the freedom to change with changing internal and external circumstances, to be influenced by reasonable argument, admonitions, exhortation, and the appeal to emotions; the freedom to respond appropriately to the stimulus of reward and punishment, and especially the freedom to cease when sated. The essence of normality is flexibility in all these ways (pp. 20–21).

It would seem that organizational health is intimately linked to the psychological health of the organization's members. As noted earlier, bureaucracies are dehumanizing mainly because people (unconsciously) treat other people in dehumanizing ways; organizations are patterned on the closed system of inquiry chiefly because their individual members are (unconsciously) "closed." We sympathize, of course, with people who find themselves trapped in closed organizations, for their plight may be exasperating and frustrating. Still, it is *people* and not abstract organizations that determine the conditions of existence; whether these people acquiesce, drop out, or confront the situation is, in the end, their choice. As McLuhan and Fiore (31) remind us, "There is absolutely no inevitability as long as there is a willingness to contemplate what is happening" (p. 25).

However closed and inflexible organizations may seem, they are not inevitably so. They can change, but only to the extent that the members themselves change. Initiating that process is the subject of our final section.

Institutionalizing self examination: Toward an open organizational climate

"Reality," writes Pritzkau (39) "might be considered a measure of one's existence" (p. 47). Existence in the organizational context on which this paper has focused consists of a realization of what the organization holds for one. This might imply a state of conformity, but it also could suggest a broader perspective—a recognition of both the constricting and liberating elements of organizational conditions.

Whenever we apprise ourselves of what the organization demands, we are in a position to ponder some of the possibilities that it holds for us. We become aware of what is necessary in order to "stay in step," but more important, we have set the stage for understanding under what conditions we may get "out of step." Detecting organizational limitations constitutes the basis of growth toward an open climate. Growth actually occurs only when members of the organization begin to probe the environment for what is real in it—that is, when they begin to achieve a state of integrity with the phenomena that comprise their organizational environment.

Unfortunately, the limitations—the "usual" and "regular" conditions and practices of the organization—are not always recognized as such. They are accepted (not without complaint, to be sure) as "reality," the "way things are." Most individuals in an organization pride themselves on being "realistic" about the "necessity" for the regular routines of system functioning. That state of mind was referred to in an earlier section as "encapsulation" or "out-of-awareness." Insofar as it supports the *status quo*, it operates as a self-fulfilling prophecy.

It is instructive to observe members of organizations in their "usual" encounters with one another. Interactions occur chiefly in terms of the roles in which they have become accustomed. Although research has substantiated the patterns, daily observations remind us of the differential qualities that are inherent, for example, in teacher-student, teacher-supervisor, and teacher-parent interactions. In the first interaction (teacher-student), teachers tend to be authoritative, condescending, or, in the case of the neophyte who assumes a "buddy" role toward students, self-consciously familiar. In the second (teacher-supervisor), teachers almost invariably are deferential, even submissive. In the third situation (teacher-parent), they tend to play the "solicitous/cooperative professional" role. It should be emphasized that the problem is not the nature of the role that is played (although that may well be the case); it is that the role is *unconsciously* assumed as "natural," the "way things are." Indeed, as conversations occur, there seems to be no question of what kind of conduct is called for. As Pritzkau (39) notes, "It has become habitual. The behavior together with the role is anticipated by the individuals even before they engage in conversation" (p. 48).

As we fall unconsciously into prescribed roles, we often engage, just as unconsciously, in "game-playing." Berne (6), in a book that became a best seller, identifies and documents a wide range of "games people play" as they act out their roles in varying social situations. A common game that the writer has observed among teachers is "They'd never allow it". In this game, the participants discuss the important curricular improvements they could enact, but "there's no use trying", they lament, "because they'd never allow it". The analogue among supervisors is called "How do you get them to change?" In this game supervisors and/or administrators laud their own prodigious efforts to foster curriculum innovation and bewail the classroom teachers' intransigent conservatism. "How do you get them to change?" they cluck, bathing in their shared futility. At the root of both of these games is a profoundly sensed inadequacy in present conditions, perhaps some guilt respecting individual failure to deal with it, and an attempt to project the blame on to other role players, "whose fault it really is." The (unconscious) psychological "payoff" of this game is the satisfaction and comfort that players derive from having their shared fiction validated by peers who see themselves all "in the same boat."

Reducing encapsulation, seeking the real in the "regular," approaching integrity with the organizational environment—in a word, being more or less authentic—is an extremely difficult, and often agonizing course to follow. Nor is it possible to provide directions that, religiously followed, will place one on the right track. Some, for example, think that being "authentic" means being different, not conforming. More often than not, this represents merely another form of role playing and is embodied in the wry characterization "conforming to nonconformity." Others believe that changing organizational patterns will do, but this, like other "recipe approaches" will not work. As Pritzkau (39) notes, such procedures "lack an overriding ingredient—that of mind" (p. 51).

The broad perspective

In the end, they key factor seems to be that ineffable human quality—mind. When Crosby (13) wrote, "Curriculum change is 'people change' " (the word "organizational" may be substituted for "curriculum" here), she was expressing a viewpoint that is accepted by many people, but understood by few. Movement toward an open organizational climate can occur only to the extent that the individual continually examines self in relation to organization. Consideration of the topics presented in this paper, it is hoped, will be helpful: the importance of a broad perspective, the moral nature of education, liberalizing studies, informal organizational structures, the policies of education, and the concept of organizational climate, to name but a few. But "knowledge" of these matters is insufficient. What is wanted is a liberal quality of mind, an approach that not only recognizes the pervasiveness of the closed system of inquiry, but promotes a penetrating concern and inquiry (however unsettling it may be) into the regularities and collective thinking that characterize the "way things are."

Unfortunately, "you can't get there from here." While this aphorism suggests the virtually insurmountable barriers associated with a shift in *Weltanschauung*, many writers, in particular existentialist psychologists, philosophers, and theologians, have suggested concepts and approaches which, when internalized, tend to dispose one to a greater awareness of what is real both in self and environment. Readers interested in pursuing in greater depth the problems and possibilities of "authentic" human development are directed to the following sources: Becker (3), Buber (10), Dubos (14), Eiseley (15), Fromm (18), Maslow (29), Pritzkau (39), Rogers (40), and Tillich (48). Among the most powerful of their ideas is the concept of dialogic confrontation. With regard to this concept, Pritzkau (39) writes: "If one would approach the authentic he would put himself in a position of confrontation—a dialogic and interprobing condition—with many of his fellow-men . . . [as well as with all phenomena]. The context in which the term is most prominently indicated here is the act of producing oneself" (p. 55). In the confrontation, the individual detaches him/or herself from the patterns and questions that keep one in alignment with the "regular," although he or she remains cognizant of them. He or she accepts complete responsibility for his/her behavior and attempts to develop an awareness of the dispositions of those who are confronted. The process fosters a boldness of viewing and entering into the ultimate questions of life. As a result, environmental (organizational) barriers to the extension of real meanings are disclosed. It should be noted here, however, that the confrontation is problem-creating rather than problem-solving. Questions relating to the real basis of human existence (in relation to the organization) multiply and expand. Because the relationship developed in the confrontation has the quality of "community without collectivity," the confronter's behavior invites those confronted to develop a more open perspective. The invitational quality suggested above underscores once more the futility of conceiving the process in terms of procedure-following; to whatever degree, one *is* authentic in the dialogic confrontation, and this quality grows in the organization to the extent that "invitations are accepted." To speak of training for the liberal quality of mind is something of a contradiction in terms.

In developing existential reality for themselves, individuals need to be initiators, or as Pritzkau (39) calls them, "first behavers in ascertaining the extent of their 'out-of-awareness' relative to what the system does" (p. 61). When they detect factors that keep people "out-of-awareness" to what is real in the organization, they may confront them (factors *and* people) in ways that produce neither organizationally destructive consequences nor excessively compromise principles. After all, organization *is* needed: schedules, record keeping, careful lesson planning, and so on. But as Pritzkau (39) notes, dialogic confrontation with what is real produces knowledge that permits one to "break out on the big ideas" (p. 61). It is this sort of perspective that moves us toward the prize that we all seek—wisdom.

Conclusion

While much more could be written here about self-examination, confrontation and the achievement of a liberal quality of mind, the authors recommended above have already done so with eloquence. The understanding of what is real and the movement toward openness in both self and organization depend on enactment of the commitment—i.e., on probing dialogic confrontation—and not just on reading about the process. It may be helpful, however, to conclude this chapter by surveying the territory we have covered, but now from the perspective of our open *Weltanschauung.*

In the light of existential concepts of awareness, reality, and authenticity, the question of how broad a perspective is necessary takes on a special quality. Considering the moral nature of education (indeed, the moral nature of every single human act) and the nature of liberal education, we see that foreign language education is far more than the development of a special skill. It is an element in the fabric of human educational experience that has an enormous power either to liberate or to encapsulate. The function that foreign language curriculum will serve depends upon whether faculty are willing to engage in the confrontations that can disclose for them what is real, or whether they opt for the relative comfort and security of the game of education.

The existential perspective also provides us with an added dimension to the meaning and basis of the influence of a foreign language in the school's curriculum. As role playing and game playing are stripped away, constituencies can interact more productively because "hidden agendas" do not distort negotiations. As each constituency in the organization leans more about the others, and about their real functions in the total school community, the democratic process of give and take expands, resulting in a more open organizational climate.

Understanding the nature of formal and informal structures, bureaucratic organization, and political forces, and the ways in which all of these contribute to organizational climate can help foreign language faculty to reach a less distorted view of the environment. But it is important to stress a caveat presented earlier: Information in itself is insufficient. *Weltanschauung* is crucial, and unless foreign language faculty develop a reflective, probing approach to information, it will not be at all helpful; it will only contribute to the intricacy of the game. For example, one may become infatuated with organizational climate questionnaires, mindlessly viewing the results they yield as a mirror of reality. The consequences of so distorted a perspective cannot be constructive because they flow from misinformation and simplistic thought processes. To put it succinctly, it is not the information, but one's perspective on it that counts.

From the standpoint of open inquiry and authentic behavior, present practices in school organizations (indeed, in most of society) are somewhat less than admirable. Recognizing the closed nature of most of our situations is one thing; initiating inquiry toward self examination and organizational health is quite another. What most faculty probably need to do first is to recognize the "They'll never allow it" kind of games for what they are and move out from there. It has been said that "every journey begins with a single step," and that in this life "nobody promised us a rose garden." The slow march of civilization has involved constant struggle, mainly against the multitudes who have sought security in "the way things are." While we are all familiar with the shakers and movers who have shattered each age's barriers to progress, we are much less familiar with the small armies of courageous thinkers who in thousands of little ways have made their own contributions to the march. The foreign language community, by virtue of its numbers and its humane tradition, is presently in a position, if its members so choose, to make its own important contribution.

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Stage 2

Identifying needs and setting goals

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Introduction

Presently, there is an increasing need for a process that will enable educators and school patrons to plan, control, and implement curricular revisions in our system of formal education. The emergence of a global society, brought about by multinational business interests and the increasing facility of international travel, often results in extrinsic and intrinsic rewards for the person who is conversant in more than one language. The development of communicative competence is becoming increasingly important to today's student, since he will be expected to function in tomorrow's world. As the multiple needs of the learner change, so, too, must the foreign language curriculum change to reflect those requirements.

Formal education is a systematized process through which individuals acquire the skills and knowledge to function in and contribute to a global society. The efficiency of any educational system is largely determined by the extent to which the curriculum is planned so as to correlate with societal needs. Through trial and error (often termed experience) as well as through empirical study, American education has attained its present form, a multifaceted, monolithic structure with diverse means and a relatively limited number of common goals. As more is discovered about the psychology of learning and about the learner, the educational system must change to incorporate the strategies and technologies which evolve from a new per-

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spective of materials and method. The teaching of foreign languages is no exception. Enrollment trends in the past decade have underscored the need for a continuing reassessment if the discipline is to remain part of a dynamic educational system. Pulliam and Bowman (40) point out that real change is evolutionary rather than revolutionary. Concomitant with change, alternatives must be provided which enable the system to reconcile present problems and circumvent those that will be encountered in the future. In effect, some procedure must be engendered to facilitate change in a constructive, evolutionary manner.

This chapter suggests several reasons for a systematic approach if foreign languages are to remain part of a changing educational program. Needs assessment, a process comprised of a series of empirical steps that define organizational purposes and identify and/or bring valid and compatible means for their realization (Kaufman and English, 24), is proposed as one approach. The procedure is described, step by step, so that teachers and curriculum designers will be able to: 1) derive, validate, and arrange goals in order of importance, 2) prepare and validate performance objectives that will lead to the attainment of the goals, 3) assess the current state of the learners' abilities, 4) develop need statements, and 5) implement strategies to resolve the differences between current and desired student performances.

A rationale for planned change

In 1958, the cover story in a national magazine maintained that foreign languages were of critical importance if the United States was to retain its stature as a world power (Bestor, 3). The following year, Conant (8) asserted that the competition between our nation and the Soviet Union in newly developing countries demanded that the United States produce an adequate supply of competent linguists as well as highly trained engineers and businessmen. Five years later, the National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education offered thirty-two recommendations for improving programs and teaching at the high school level (32). The first three statements of their report related to curriculum in general, and can be extrapolated to the teaching of foreign languages.

> 1) Every secondary school and its subordinate departments must formulate a statement of goals and develop performance criteria for students.
> 2) Communities must participate in the formulation of goals and in continuing efforts to refine and adapt the statements of goals and objectives. The communities as a whole, not solely the subsection called schools, must achieve the goals.
> 3) The content of traditional high school curricula should be revised

> to eliminate busy-work components designed merely to occupy the time of adolescents who are in school only because the law requires it.... Intelligent evaluation of curricular revision must grow from valid measurements of the degree to which students are achieving the stated goals and objectives of their schools (pp. 13–14).

Similar concerns have been voiced from within the foreign language profession. Garfinkel and Hamilton (11) have edited a publication whose purpose is to "make concrete suggestions for methods instructors to choose from in designing their methods courses according to their goals *and* in conjunction with the needs, interests, and capabilities of their students" (p. 4). In 1968 Lane (25) had reported that "present methodology makes little or no provision for differences among students, although these differences may be the single most important variable in determining foreign language achievement. Present instructional methods in FL do not allow for different learning styles, preferred sensory modalities, rates of acquisition, kinds of motivation, and entering behaviors of students" (p. 3). Lane further contended that students too often failed to see how foreign languages could fit into their own needs and goals. In addition, teachers and administrators too often rationalized the goals of the foreign language requirement in terms of superordinate goals, such as general education. Additionally, Lane observed that student priorities and teacher priorities rarely matched up; what is worse, they often meshed poorly with the goals implicit in the materials used in the courses. A decade later, some of these criticisms have been countered; some have not.

Pérez (37) has asserted that the principal problem in foreign language instruction (particularly at the university level) is that too many professors try to make language teachers or literary scholars of all their students. Said another way, too many teachers tend to pursue their *own* objectives rather than to consider the needs and abilities of students, whom they treat as if they were to become carbon copies of themselves. The conclusion that one can draw, therefore, is that as the profession has attempted to shift gradually from a subject-matter centered to a learner-centered curriculum, it has failed to account adequately for the learner himself. Medley and Smith (31) stress the importance of maintaining an awareness of the interrelationship between student characteristics and student performance. Hosenfeld (16) and Lepke (26) focus on the discovery of learning style, as do Reinert (41) and Nunney (33).

Rivers (42) has noted that students become more involved when courses are built on areas of personal concern relevant to their particular stage of development; this, in turn, makes the new learning meaningful while creating more of an incentive for mastering it. Oates (34) maintains that the average American student gets excited about foreign language study when he or she can use the language to communicate with others about things of interest. Similarly, Rounds (43) has discovered that it is both possible and advisable to present students with a variety of learning options, provided some attention is given to the development and management of the structure involved. He notes further that interaction among curriculum planners and students will result in better materials development than unilateral attention to the same curriculum. In a similar vein, Pulliam and Bowman (40) have concluded that methodology in teaching is *less* significant than content whenever students are interested and involved actively in learning. For example, the dramatic rise in enrollments in vocational education courses indicates the thrust that needs to be taken in the humanities. Cohen (7) notes that as a result of offering training commensurate with students' needs and interests, departments of vocational education have moved in the past two decades from "a tin barn on the other side of the campus to facilities filled with new and sophisticated training equipment, and students clamoring to enroll in the program" (p. 9). In summary, the first major reason for a planned program of change and development of institutional and/or curricular goals is to provide an opportunity for parent, student, and community to influence the overall objectives of the educational system.

Educational accountability

A second motivation for the application of a consistent change strategy is the increasing demand for educational accountability. In an earlier volume, Parent and Veidt (35) discussed the origins, pressures, ingredients, problems, applications, and results of programs designed to evaluate the effectiveness of foreign language courses. In a period of mounting economic crisis for the American taxpayer, many institutional budgets are facing greater public scrutiny. Discontent is voiced in the voting booth, where more and more school referenda are defeated. Although a negative vote cannot be interpreted solely in terms of dissatisfaction with the fiscal policies of the local school district, it is reasonable to assume that if the voter were better appraised of the value received per tax dollar, he or she might be more inclined to view the amount spent on education as an investment in the future rather than an expenditure for the present which gives nothing in return.

Educators themselves do not agree on how educational programs can best be evaluated. On one hand, there are those who feel that the system or the program is accountable only when a dollar cost can be placed upon a specific end result. For example, if a cost-per-pupil comparison can be made between outfitting a football player and a band member, or between equipping a position in a chemistry and a language laboratory, then the school is judged accountable. Proponents of the cost analysis viewpoint often overlook the fact that unless the validity of the program itself is established *a priori* in terms of the goals of the learner, the educator, and the community, any attempts to evaluate the whole by the sum of the parts is unfounded, or vice versa. The apparent success of individual programs does not necessarily reveal the extent to which the system itself has been served, unless the goals of the system have been used as criteria for the evaluation (English and Kaufman, 9).

Other educators contend that measuring program outcomes alone provides an inadequate basis for judging the effectiveness of the curriculum, since many of the legitimate objectives of education are not measurable. For example, the ability of a student to recite the opening paragraphs of the Declaration of Independence gives no indication whatsoever as to whether or not that student understands and appreciates the principles upon which the signers of the document sought national sovereignty. Thus opponents of cost accountability argue that the procedure simply offers a method to assess the trivial. The part/whole, evaluation/accountability comparison is analogous to the student who can do everything with a foreign language except *use* it! The distinction between linguistic competence and communicative competence (Joiner, 22; Savignon, 44; Schulz and Bartz, 46;), or between mechanical and meaningful drills, (Paulston, 36) reflects precisely more of the same: exclusive attention to means does not guarantee attainment of the preferred ends. Sensible accountability is not solely the perfection of the means, not is it simply the attainment of vague and undefined goals. Instead, the concept of accountability requires establishment and validation of purposeful objectives followed by systematic planning, development, and implementation of the means (strategies, techniques) designed to achieve them. In other words, the school or program can be held accountable first in terms of what it has set out to accomplish, and only then for the efficiency of the methods used to realize the accomplishment.

Effecting change in the foreign language curriculum

In 1974, Jarvis (18) wrote that many foreign language teachers have come to dismiss change as nothing more than "new jargon for old ideas" (p. 3), while observing that, on the contrary, all the components of education have changed; the goals as well as the strategies for attaining them are different. The learners who enroll in foreign languages today are radically different from their predecessors, a circumstance which requires major changes in the profession's attitude toward the means and ends of education.

The titles of the last several volumes in the *ACTFL Series* also demonstrate a sensitivity to the need for change:

1973: *Responding to New Realities* (Jarvis, 20)
1974: *The Challenge of Communication* (Jarvis, 17)
1975: *Persepective: A New Freedom* (Jarvis, 19)
1976: *An Integrative Approach to Foreign Language Teaching: Choosing Among the Options* (Jarvis and Omaggio, 21)

1977: *The Language Connection: From the Classroom to the World* (Phillips, 38)

Obviously, the face of foreign language instruction is evolving, and that evolution should be facilitated and directed by classroom teachers, themselves, rather than imposed by administrative decree. However, the manner in which teachers participate in program development must be highly efficient, given the many demands already placed upon their time.

Needs assessment

The needs assessment procedure outlined and discussed in the following pages is one strategy that can be employed to bring about curricular revision with a minimum of wasted effort. Needs assessment might be diagrammed as in Figure 1.

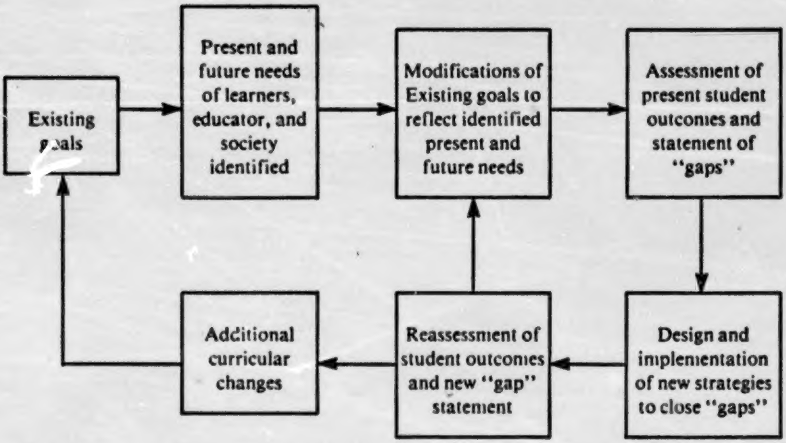
Existing goals
Present and future needs of learners, educator, and society identified
Modifications of Existing goals to reflect identified present and future needs
Assessment of present student outcomes and statement of "gaps"
Design and implementation of new strategies to close "gaps"
Reassessment of student outcomes and new "gap" statement
Additional curricular changes

Fig. 1 The needs assessment process

Several characteristics define needs assessment in a general sense. It is an empirical process which:

1 defines the desired end (outcome, product, result) of a given sequence of curriculum development;
2 makes specific, in some intelligible manner, what "schooling" should be about in a broad sense and how it can be assessed;
3 delineates the outcomes of education and, as such, forms a set of criteria by which curricula may be developed and compared;
4 determines the validity of behavioral objectives and the appropriateness or conditions under which standardized and/or criterion-referenced tests can be used;
5 selects and relates a variety of means to each other in the development of curriculum;
6 harvests the lack of correspondence between current results (outcomes, products) and required or desired results, places the discrepancies in order of importance, and selects those gaps (needs) of the highest priority for action, usually through the implementation of a new or existing curriculum or management process (English and Kaufman, 9, p. 3).

As Tyler (51) wrote in the early fifties, educational objectives should be stated only after the difference between the present condition of the learner and what he knows has been established and compared to the acceptable norm. Tyler characterized the difference between the two as a gap or a need upon which specific action could be taken. Some type of discrepancy analysis or needs assessment must be performed to identify the disparity between the current position of the learner and a desirable standard. In conducting the analysis, the following steps can be taken before attempting remedia tion.

1 Design a course of action.
2 Derive initial goals.
3 Validate the goals.
4 List the goals in terms of priority.
5 Translate the goals into performance indicators and detailed objectives
6 Validate the performance objectives.
7 Select the testing instruments or evaluate strategies for assessing the current state of learning.
8 Collate the data.
9 Develop an initial statement of the differences between the actual and the desired second-language skills of the students. (*This is the needs statement*)
10 List the statements of needs in order of importance, as in Step 4.
11 Publish a list of the discrepancies between objectives and outcomes.

In addition, there is a set of post-needs-assessment actions which act upon the data produced in Steps 1 through 11. They are:

1 Determine the programs and levels where there are differences between the observed and the desired outcomes.
2 Conduct diagnostic/planning sessions to develop implementation strategies to meet the identified needs.
3 Budget for the implementation of strategies.
4 Fund the strategies.
5 Implement the strategies.
6 Reassess the discrepancies between student performance and stated objectives.
7 Repeat steps of the needs assessment process.

The step-by-step sequence illustrates further the circular route of the needs assessment procedure indicated in Figure 1. The remaining portions of this chapter will be devoted to a discussion of the steps outlined above insofar as they relate to the needs assessment process in order to delineate more clearly the means by which to implement the plan.

Step 1: Designing a course of action

Several preliminary decisions must be made before data are collected about any given program: first, and most important, to identify advocates within the school and the community who will make up the task force, and secondly, to discover the mechanism and machinery to carry forth the effort in an efficient manner. Most school districts have a formalized group that functions in an advisory capacity to the local board of education. One or more members of the advisory group might be interested in the foreign language program and be willing to participate in a series of curriculum planning sessions. If no formalized advisory group exists, a parent-teacher organization could be invited to participate. If neither of these two groups is functioning in the district, contact might be made with parents of students enrolled currently in the foreign language courses, or with members of the community who have hosted an exchange student. In any case, it is very important that the community have a representative present throughout the needs assessment process.

The second group to be considered is the student body. The most appropriate source is an established student organization such as a student council or a student senate. In the absence of student organizations, some selection process can be used to involve students who are enrolled (or who have been enrolled previously) in a foreign language course.

Thirdly, if there is an active teacher's association or union, it would be well to discuss the scope and intent of the proposed needs assessment with an official representative in order to avoid a potential contract violation or formal grievance. Similarly, school administrators should be included in planning the assessment process from the beginning, since much of the actual implementation of the project will depend upon administrative support.

A fourth issue to be considered is the availability of high-speed data processing equipment in the district. If computer facilities are available, the design and format of questionnaires, etc., might be quite different from that used for hand tallies.

Similarly, careful reading of existing goals and performance objectives will help determine the course of action and will affect the length of time needed to complete the design phase of the assessment. With respect to time, most school districts have found that anywhere from six months to two years are needed to complete the full cycle of a school-wide and system-wide effort (English and Kaufman, 9). Within a single discipline, however, the task might be completed more quickly.

A fifth consideration is how to present the idea of a needs assessment to those involved. Persons with limited knowledge of the purpose and process of the strategy are often suspicious, and even hostile to the concept. Some may feel that the whole endeavor is a *sub rosa* teacher evaluation, an attitude that can be countered either by involving them at the outset in the design of the evaluation process, or by talking to them on a one-to-one basis and discussing any apprehensions that they might have.

Finally, once the parties have selected the participants, a decision must be made with respect to the "weighting" of the input from any particular representative. In other words, will the opinion of any one member of the committee carry greater strength than the opinions of others. Kaufman (23) suggests that *all* members of the task force should have equal opportunity to contribute to the information pool. In the actual development of the performance indicators, however, the teachers and administrators will carry the major responsibility as a result of their experience (English and Kaufman, 9).

Step 2: Deriving initial goals

Once the task force has been assembled, the first objective is to derive a set of goals with which to work. Steiner (49) describes the goal derivation process as one which begins with the school philosophy, breaks it into subgoals, refines the subgoals into purposes, and further refines the purposes into performance objectives (pp. 17–18). Ultimately, a specific activity in the classroom can be traced to a central source in the philosophy of the school district. The process is illustrated in Figure 2, which is based upon a goal refinement process undertaken in 1973–74 by a high school foreign language department (13).

As a part of a system-wide assessment, the foreign language department developed objectives that reflected the declared goals of the district. Initially, the Citizens Advisory Committee to the Board of Education developed a set of goals for the district (48). The goals were recommended to the board, which made some amendments before approving the goal statements. Committees from each school in the district then formulated objectives for their particular setting, utilizing input from administrators, teachers, parents, and students. Within each secondary school, departmental goals were developed by committees which, as in the case of the original task force, represented a cross section of school and community. Once departmental objectives were prepared, performance objectives were derived for each level of instruction in each language. Specific objectives were written for each unit of instruction, and classroom activities were designed which would lead to attainment of the particular objective. The process resulted in a series of statements about student performance, some of which are offered here as an example. For brevity, only a single statement is presented in each category although more complete objectives were developed (50).

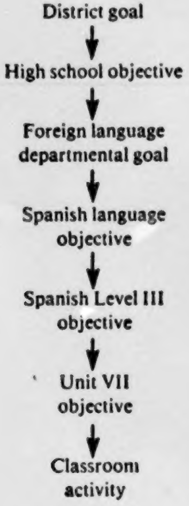
District goal
High school objective
Foreign language departmental goal
Spanish language objective
Spanish Level III objective
Unit VII objective
Classroom activity

Fig. 2 Flow chart of goal refinement process

District Goal: Schools should provide opportunities for students to acquire the basic skills of reading, writing, speaking, listening and computation.

Building Level Objective (High School): Students shall be able to communicate effectively by developing and practicing verbal and nonverbal forms of self expression and communication.

Departmental Goal (Foreign Languages): Each learner enrolled in foreign languages shall acquire an ability to communicate orally, in writing, and nonverbally with speakers of another language.

Subject Area (Spanish): Students will develop fluency in Spanish to such a degree that they could converse with native speakers in the language, maintaining proper intonation and pronunciation patterns.

Curricular Objective (Level II Spanish): The student will demonstrate fluency in Spanish by answering orally questions in Spanish based on topics found on specific lists designed for that purpose.

Unit Objective (Unit XIII): Upon completion of this unit, the student will be able to create original sentences which use old and new vocabulary.

Classroom Activity: Questions (oral)
¿Adónde fueron Alfredo y Mariana?
¿Le gustan a Alfredo las historietas de amor?
¿Qué costumbre discuten Alfredo y Mariana?

Figure 3 illustrates the relationship between district-wide goals and specific classroom activities as developed through the goal refinement process.

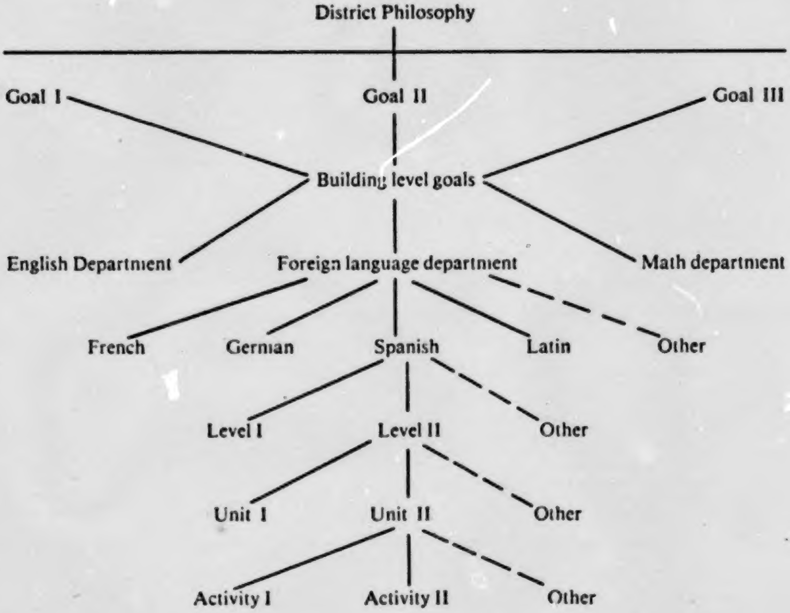
District Philosophy
Goal I
Goal II
Goal III
Building level goals
English Department
Foreign language department
Math department
French
German
Spanish
Latin
Other
Level I
Level II
Other
Unit I
Unit II
Other
Activity I
Activity II
Other

Fig. 3 Relationship of district-wide goal refinement process to specific classroom activity

As an alternate approach to deriving performance objectives from district wide goals, the writer can begin with a text or set of materials, establish what the learner is expected to do at the end of each lesson or unit, and state course objectives based upon the expectations. A variation of the latter involves assembling a variety of materials about which specific objectives are written.

In the event that the school district or the school building has no stated goals or philosophy, it would be easier to use the alternate system to develop statements about expected student performance. It should be kept in mind that there is a much greater chance that the draft originated by the task force process will be modified considerably as the process matures from beginning to end. There is even the possibility that agreement among students' representatives, teachers, administrators, and the community will not be reached with respect to the desired outcomes of the program. In that case, it may be advisable to call upon the services of a consultant who should be able to work out a compromise between the interested parties.

Step 3: Validating the goals

All goals must be valid with respect to the educational system for which they are intended. Validity here—sometimes called "face" or "content" validity—is a nonstatistical estimate of the extent to which the goals reflect the desired outcomes of the educational process. Thus, the process of validation consists of asking a representative sample of all those interested in a given curriculum whether or not the goals as stated reflect the scope of the program itself. It is the responsibility of the members of the needs assessment task force to identify the population from which to draw this sample. For example, the population might consist of all students enrolled in a foreign language and/or their parents, teachers, and administrators. The sample might be drawn by taking every n^th^ name from each teacher's class list, the teacher directory, or a list of administrators, or a questionnaire might be mailed to a wider list of those who might be interested, if it is not too large.

Simultaneously, some attempt should be made to validate the program goals through an external set of criteria. Letters to business and community leaders, executives of multinational corporations, and ex-students might provide additional insight into the relationship between "real" and "perceived" needs in the foreign language program. Similarly, it is often convenient to write to the State Departments of Education which have published lists of goal statements for their respective schools; Florida, Illinois, Maryland, Michigan, Oklahoma, and Texas are examples.

Step 4: Listing the goals in terms of priority

Once it is determined to what extent the goals reflect the desired outcomes of a program, it is necessary to rank the goals in order from more desirable to less desirable. Generally, the scope of the goals is so extensive that they would not all be achieved except under optimum circumstances. Listing the goals in order of importance establishes the relative emphasis to be placed upon each.

The most common approach to the establishment of a hierarchy of goals is through a survey which asks respondents to rank the statements derived in the earlier stages of the assessment process. A goal-by-goal tally of responses from all raters will result in a listing of objectives preferentially from greatest to least importance.

Step 5: Translating the goals into performance indicators and detailed objectives

The transformation of broad goals into more specific indicators and objectives is a critical step in the needs assessment process. It should be kept in mind that some of the desired outcomes related to the affective domain (i.e., feelings, emotions, aesthetic appreciation) perhaps cannot be specified behaviorally, although they are no less important (Grittner, 14). Ultimately, the foreign language teacher strives to develop a variety of language skills that will interact with students' broad experiential background and result in sometimes unanticipated and often nonobservable outcomes. Grittner (14) suggests that performance objectives are of value only when certain criteria are met. These conditions are:

1. "The objectives are used only in those areas where actual student performance can be realistically observed, but not to the exclusion of nonobservable outcomes."
2. "The local school administration has provided ample time to prepare the objectives."
3. "The objectives are made available to the learners themselves in such a way that students can see their relevance to the course of study. An even better approach is to have learners involved in the preparation of objectives."
4. "The objectives are used in a positive way to help the student learn the material and are not used in connection with punitive measures (such as classifying students through curve grading, threatening students with failure, and so on)."
5. "The objectives are not set aside as a separate compendium of goals but are worked into and are related to the ongoing instructional activities" (p. 115).

The preparation of performance indicators is a tedious process, the purpose of which is to provide links between goals, activities, and desired student behaviors. Bloom et al. (4) and Mager (29) were pioneers in clarifying the general categories of learning across disciplines. One of the most complete references on the subject for foreign languages has been prepared by Steiner (49). The sequential procedures described in this publication are easy to follow, even for the uninitiated. In addition, Valette and Disick (52) have coauthored a handbook which provides practical guidelines for writing and implementing performance objectives, and which also offers sample statements classified in increasing order of difficulty.

There is a tendency to envision performance objectives as a point in a linear process, with the goal statement at one extreme and the classroom activity at the other. Goal indicators and curricular objectives are intermediate points on the continuum which become increasingly specific in terms of student performance. In spite of the flow chart configuration (Figure 2), it is more advantageous—at least in the developmental stages—to maintain a global view and to consider at the same time the broad goals of a course and the specific classroom activities reflected in the daily lesson plan. For example, suppose that one of the departmental goals is that each foreign language student will achieve an ability to communicate orally, in writing, and nonverbally with speakers of another language.

Suppose further that a related and specific classroom activity calls for the student to listen to a taped conversation in Spanish and summarize in English what he has heard. The *goal indicator* representing an intermediate level of specificity might state:

> Students will develop fluency in Spanish to the extent that they can converse with a native speaker in that language, maintaining proper intonation and pronunciation patterns.

The *curricular objective*, again more specific, might be:

> The student will demonstrate listening comprehension by answering orally and in writing questions about an oral presentation.

Hence the branching process might be illustrated as in Figure 4.

As the teacher begins to interrelate activities and goals, it becomes evident that some of the classroom time may not be contributing to the stated objectives of the course. When incongruity is noted, the teacher must decide whether there is a desired goal that has not been stated or whether, in fact, the activity is nonproductive in terms of developing the students' language abilities. Thus, one of the by-products of the development of performance indicators and objectives is a facile assessment of the day-to-day activities of the foreign language class.

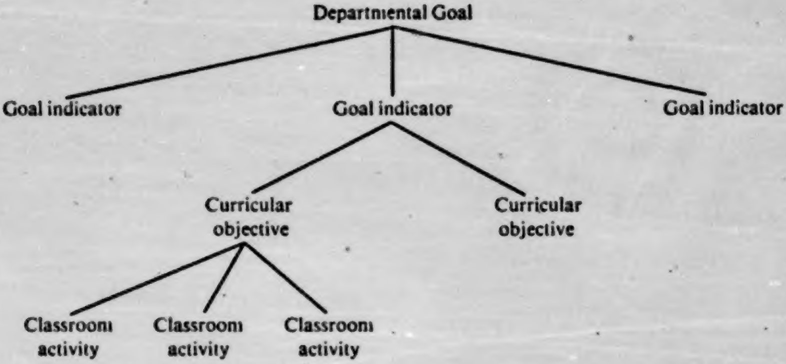

Fig. 4 Goal branching process

Step 6: Validating the performance objectives

As English and Kaufman (9) point out, the process of developing a performance objective does not necessarily validate it. Rather, it simply allows for a judgment as to whether it is, or is not, what it purports to be. Thus, it is important to determine whether or not the statement of desired behavior is an element of a broader educational goal. Similarly, one must apply the criteria of guidance, relevance, and feasibility to the objective. Does the description tell the student what behavior is expected? Does it describe a behavior which the student can recognize as necessary? Is the outcome feasible in view of the several factors that will influence the learning situation? And finally, will satisfactory attainment of all the partial objectives result in the realization of the broader goal itself?

Some authorities (Steiner, 49; Valette and Disick, 52) feel that it is necessary to state the criterion by which attainment of each partial objective will be measured. If it is the will of the task force which prepares the objectives that the criterion be stated for measuring its outcome, then that criterion will also be a point to consider in estimating the validity of the outcome statement. However, the decision to include or omit the measurement factor should be left to the discretion of those who design the need statement.

A second step in the validation of the performance objectives is to return to the needs assessment committee for approval of the program objectives established through the original writing, conversion, or adaptation. As English and Kaufman (9) suggest, "Validation consists of having each respondent group approve at a previously determined level of acceptance that the objectives represent the intent and scope of any given educational goal" (p. 32).

As a result of the statements concerning specific outcomes, it may be desirable to make a new listing of goals in terms of their priority. Often, an increased understanding of the broader goal results from viewing its component behaviors, causing a shift in perception of their relative importance. Regardless of whether or not a change is made in the rank order, the inclusion of a process for interim assessment—a "feedback loop"—is advisable, if only to reaffirm the initial intent of the task force. As such, the feedback may prevent subsequent disagreement as the needs assessment process continues.

Step 7: Selecting the testing instruments or evaluative strategies for assessing the current state of learning

Since one of the bases for identifying discrepancies between program objectives and outcomes necessitates evaluating the learner's cognitive skills, it is important to select tests or delineate strategies for measuring student achievement. There are several standardized achievement tests available for commonly taught foreign languages (Buros, 5) which can facilitate the comparison of student progress to national norms. However, since the standaridized tests will probably not measure all the areas covered by the individual goal statements, it is advisable to develop a criterion-referenced test based upon the specific objectives unique to a given district, which will compare the level of student mastery of material to the desired level of performance. If the criterion-referenced test is a good reflection of the goals and objectives of a particular program, it can provide a detailed analysis of the discrepancies between desired performance and actual performance.

An interview format can be utilized in the event another method is deemed appropriate to measure the students' language ability. Techniques for assessing the student's extent of oral facility in the foreign language have been developed by several authors (Bartz, 2; Clark, 6; Linder, 28; Schulz, 45), all of which appear to have considerable evaluative and diagnostic merit. A somewhat less extensive interview approach is used at Purdue University to screen candidates for admission to student teaching in the foreign languages (Garfinkel, 10; Hatfield, 15). Regardless of the method, it should be remembered that a major problem can exist if the measurement of discrepancies is based exclusively on what the strategy or test can assess per se. Of course, areas of performance not evaluated purposefully will *not* appear as discrepancies, since there will not be a point for comparison. Care must be exercised in interpolating the outcomes, for a needs assessment defined in terms of restricted test data may be totally inaccurate and can lead to undue emphasis on the trivial, simply because only trivial behaviors have been measured. Also, certain affective goals may not be measurable via instruments. In that case, direct observation may be the best way to establish the current status of the learners. Some effective scales have been developed, and are available to the foreign language teacher (Lett, 27).

Valette and Disick (52) note that teachers cannot be content with only imprecise knowledge or highly subjective impressions of the affective outcomes of instruction, since student attitude and behavior have a great influence on foreign language achievement. The authors offer a four-stage approach to the measurement of the affective domain, spanning student receptivity (awareness and attentiveness), responsiveness (tolerance, interest, and enjoyment), appreciation (valuing and involvement), and internalization (conceptualization). In summary, a combination of objective and subjective evaluation is preferred in assessing the students' capabilities.

Step 8: Collating the data

Once the data have been collected, they must be assembled to form a meaningful base of information. The format selected to present the findings will depend largely upon two factors: the type of data collected, and the consumer to whom the data are to be presented. The same data might be reported in more than one form. Graphs, charts, tables, and other summative and descriptive statements should be generated in order to give as complete a profile as possible of the current level of student performance. The compiler should remember that it is composite and *not* individual performance that is of interest. *In no instance* should a particular student be singled out, since to do so would constitute a violation of the student's legal right to privacy. English and Kaufman (9) cite a manual prepared by the New York State Education Department (47) that guides the task force in organizing the data for presentation to its constituents and using it in the overall needs assessment program.

Step 9: Developing an initial statement of differences between actual and desired second-language skills of students

Once the actual level of learner performance is established, the curriculum developer is ready to illustrate the discrepancies between what is desired and what has been achieved by students. The need statements resulting from collection and study of data are listed without reference or speculation as to their cause or reason. Examples of need statements might be:

1 Twenty-four percent of the students enrolled in Level I Spanish could not answer correctly oral questions based on the reading selection in Unit XIII of the textbook.
2 Sixty-eight percent of the students who completed Level I German with a final grade of C or above did not enroll in a Level II class.
3 Forty-three percent of the students enrolled in Level III French could not

state five ways in which the French-speaking culture differs from their own.

Sometimes the expectations of terminal student behaviors represent the interaction of several skills which, in combination, did not produce the desired results. In that case, the data may need to be restructured in order to identify the specific discrepancy. For instance, in Need Statement #1 above, it must be determined whether the twenty-four percent of the students who could not answer the oral questions were unable to: a) comprehend the questions, b) understand the reading selection, or c) formulate a response. For this reason it may be desirable to conduct a pilot study to determine if meaningful and specific needs statements can be made from the measurement strategies and resultant data.

Step 10: Listing the statements of needs in order of importance

After the comparisons between current student performance and the educational objectives have been converted to needs statements, the areas found lacking must be clustered around the broader goals for which they, in turn, are indicators of desired performance levels. Next, each group of needs should be ordered in terms of the severity of the discrepancy. It is important to rank order within each cluster rather than attempt to establish relative importance among all of the needs statements as a single group. Since the goals have been ranked (and possibly reordered) previously, the curriculum developers will know which needs should be addressed first and the degree of importance that the resolution of that need will contribute to the attainment of the goal itself.

Step 11: Publishing a list of the discrepancies between objectives and outcomes

A master list is composed following the development of the list of statements which delimit discrepancies between goals and results. No hypothesis should be offered with respect to the causes of the discrepancies, nor should a defensive "explanation" be appended. The only accompanying commentary should be a succinct reiteration of the process through which the needs were identified. The needs assessment strategy is completed once the list of statements is communicated to the various interest groups, although there remains a number of steps critical to the post-needs-assessment strategy which must be undertaken if the entire process is to serve a useful purpose.

Post-needs-assessment activities

Post-Step 1: Interpolating discrepancies by program and level

By this point in the assessment procedure, the program needs have been identified in terms of broad and predetermined goals—probably at the departmental level. The first step in eliminating the discrepancies, then, is to locate them by language and level. In other words, the entire language-specific curriculum must be laid out so that the problem areas become visible. The perspective afforded by a global consideration of the language curriculum may reveal that one reason students are not developing the expected variety of language competencies and attitudes is that no one is teaching them. It may be found, for example, that the students have been given reading *assignments* instead of reading *instruction* (Medley, 30; Phillips, 39), or that the intrinsic values of foreign languages have not developed because they have not been transmitted correctly to the students (Garrard, 12).

Not all problems may be resolved easily, since the complexity and interrelationship of the skills required to use a foreign language effectively are not completely understood at present. The interpolation step requires, however, that teachers begin to locate incongruencies between objectives and outcomes by language, and especially by level, if the learners' needs are to be met.

Post-Step 2: Conducting diagnostic planning sessions

Discrepancies in student performance have now been identified in terms of language and level, and a meaningful effort must be made to improve the learner's language behavior. Unless remediation is undertaken at this point, the needs assessment has been largely a waste of everyone's time.

At the diagnostic/planning stage, it becomes necessary to assemble those individuals (or representatives thereof) who will be affected by a subsequent discussion and development of strategies for the implementation of whatever plan is derived. English and Kaufman (9) suggest that each facet of the curriculum be examined to that end. For example, key questions to ask include:

1 Are teachers adequately trained to implement the current curriculum?
2 Is sufficient time devoted to the various levels of language study?
3 Are there unique characteristics in the student population which prevent the curriculum from being meaningful or appropriate?

4 Should the language curriculum be rewritten, reconceptualized, or otherwise altered?
5 Are there adequate materials and supplies?
6 Are the student/teacher learning environments maximally productive? Is the teacher load excessive?
7 Does the pattern of instructional staffing make the best use of necessary expertise to solve problems?
8 Are the methods used to evaluate students adequate in diagnostic as well as prognostic abilities?
9 Is the present curriculum valid, well defined, and complete? Does it match the departmental objectives?

During the diagnostic planning sessions the task force attempts to discover the causes of the discrepancies illuminated by the needs analysis, and a considerable amount of brainstorming and hypothesizing will occur in an effort to identify and order the reasons for the lack of correlation between desired outcomes and reality. A curriculum consultant or foreign language methodologist may be sought to interact with the group as it begins to develop strategies and to prepare future budgets.

Post-Step 3: Budgeting for implementation strategies

The needs assessment is linked to the budget at the point at which implementation strategies are selected to restructure the foreign language program. The cost of each strategy is estimated and submitted in the appropriate budget category.

In preparing for a budget hearing (which doubtless will result from any request for an increase in departmental allocations), it is imperative to have an accurate cost analysis of the existing program. In fact, it is the very need for funding that has made it of paramount importance to involve administrators in the needs assessment process from its inception. A positive approach should be taken in submitting the budget request. The group should first stress the benefits derived from the existing program, then present the additional benefits expected to accrue from the proposed changes. Finally, the means should be specified by which the effectiveness of the proposed change will be measured. Since the governing body of the school district will have the final word in terms of any funds allocated, the importance of a clear presentation of the findings from the needs assessment process cannot be overemphasized. Above all, it should be apparent that recommendations for the proposed curricular changes come from a highly organized study, and are not the result of arbitrary and capricious decisions on the part of the needs assessment task force.

Post-Step 4: Funding the strategies

It is quite possible that all of the proposed strategies can be funded through existing budget categories. If a problem arises as a result of severely limited allocations to curriculum and instruction, one might investigate financing the change through a project or innovative curricula category. By working with the business manager or other administrative personnel, the instructional staff should be able to fund the majority of its proposed activities.

Post-Step 5: Implementing the strategies

After the change strategies have been planned and funded, they may be implemented either within ongoing programs or as new projects. The decision will depend upon several factors, including the capabilities of personnel, the rigidity of current programs, and the extent to which the present program is attracting and holding students. If the ongoing programs have a reputation for being stagnated, pedantic, and unimaginative, it might be wise to use the new strategies as a means to counter that impression and develop a fresh approach to foreign language study. In terms of general acceptance, however, there may be less resistance if the new ideas are used to shore up the old program rather than to develop one which threatens those who have been working in areas in which discrepancies were discovered (English and Kaufman, 9).

Post-Step 6: Reassessing needs via feedback

After a specified period of time, the results of the curricular changes should be evaluated through the use of formative and summative data (Asher, 1). Formative data will provide information that will enable slight modifications in the strategies during the implementation period: summative data will reveal whether or not the new program has been effective over-all. Further diagnostic sessions, involving all members of the task force, may be needed to identify and analyze the factors that are hindering closure of the gaps. The self-correcting aspect of the feedback process is vital to continued development of the innovations. The ongoing reassessment will facilitate program design and implementation, and will help determine if a certain program or strategy should be continued, modified, or phased out. Failure to incorporate this step can result in the same type of program rigidity that precipitated the needs assessment originally.

Post-Step 7: Repeating the steps of the needs assessment process

Since by definition needs assessment is cyclical in nature, the process can be repeated as required. The post-needs-assessment steps comprise a continuous procedure to implement the decisions derived from the predetermination; Steps 1–11 of the needs assessment procedure usually are conducted only on a periodic basis. From time to time, new discrepancies or curricular needs will be identified through repetition of the process. It is in this context that an effective program of foreign language instruction can be maintained over time.

Summary and conclusion

The necessity for today's students to be prepared to function within the context of a global society places strong demands on our system of education. It is only through a carefully planned process that schools can modify curricula to accommodate the ever-changing needs of their constituents. The needs assessment process, which has been discussed in this stage, is one approach that can be used to incorporate change in a curriculum so that it correlates with societal needs. Consistent application of the needs assessment procedure will result in an increased ability to facilitate change in a constructive, evolutionary manner; it will contribute to the reconciliation of present problems and to the avoidance of many potential problems that might be encountered in the future.

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Stage 3

Choosing materials that do the job

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Introduction

Many educated observers of American classrooms would have us believe that in the majority of subject areas and programs of our schools, the textbook *is* the curriculum. These critics also frequently contend that success in such courses or programs is often measured in terms of the extent to which the book is completed. These most pessimistic views would doubtless be refuted by all dedicated teachers, and perhaps in particular by foreign language teachers. Countless successful foreign language programs at the college level (Schulz, 30) and at the secondary level (35) have attempted to make foreign language study relevant and exciting to the students enrolled. Each successful program goes far beyond the coverage of a particular textbook as its prime strategy.

The importance of text materials in foreign language classrooms is, nevertheless, a crucial issue. Although no teachers want to believe themselves to be slaves of a particular textbook or set of materials (nor should they!), they must understand and use the freedom that they do have to adapt and to supplement the materials to conform to their own needs and the needs of their students.

Choosing a textbook and supplementary materials becomes a major area of concern for every language teacher. As Rivers (28) points out, many decisions have already been made in a textbook one has chosen: content

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decisions—what the student will be exposed to for learning; approach decisions—how this learning is intended to take place; and, skill decisions—those skills which will receive the most emphasis. For the most creative and talented foreign language teacher or the less certain novice, the textbook will form the core, base, and inspiration for the majority of classroom activities.

Once a decision is made to offer a foreign language course or program, and to choose materials appropriate for the objectives involved, the bewildering abundance of language materials, for which no comprehensive and systematically structured classification or evaluation is available, becomes all too apparent. This bewilderment, however, becomes all the more significant when one realizes that the individual foreign language teacher may have very little say in the textbook-materials choice—indeed no more than an intelligent (it is hoped) opinion expressed to those directly responsible for that choice. It behooves every foreign language teacher, therefore, to become as knowledgeable as possible about selection criteria for foreign language materials. Thus intelligent choices can be made, or, at the very least, a persuasive argument and educated opinion can be offered to those in authority who will choose the materials.

This stage will present, first, some pre-evaluation and pre-choice considerations affecting the reality of materials selection, including external and internal factors that may govern choices to be made; second, a case study detailing the procedures followed in a fairly large metropolitan school district's organizational approach to textbook evaluation and choice; third, the practical realities of the evaluation process for the teachers who are evaluators, choosers, and users: considerations for evaluating the content itself, and considerations beyond content, as compiled from reports of the most commonly used evaluative instruments for foreign language materials selection in the United States; and, finally, some further considerations and recommendations for the future in choosing materials that help the teacher do the job.

Pre-evaluation/Pre-choice considerations

The seemingly simple question of who will evaluate and choose the foreign language textbook elicits a wide variety of responses. Warriner (41) reports that in Virginia, a state committee, consisting of foreign language teachers and supervisors, selects those texts and/or materials which they consider best for the public schools of the state. In Oklahoma (Gage, 11) where textbook selection in subject areas rotates on a five-year schedule with all foreign language textbooks being selected in one year, the textbook commission is appointed by the governor and covers a range of school personnel not necessarily representative of the subject areas up for textbook adoption.

By custom, but not by law, these commission members ask practicing teachers to examine the sample books and to make recommendations. Since only books on the official adoption list may be bought with state textbook moneys, local funds must be used if individual schools wish to use texts not on the state adopted list. Similarly, in Utah (Howe, 17), library funds or audiovisual funds may be used to purchase some books other than those on the adopted list, but again, only officially adopted texts can be purchased with textbook funds. For the state of Montana (Jackson, 18), as for many other states, there is no statewide policy on textbook adoption. Instead, texts and supporting materials for foreign languages are adopted according to individual teacher preference with the constraints of existing local budgets. In several states general policies are to encourage textbook review when texts are five years old.

In those states without textbook adoption policies, each local school district is generally authorized to select textbooks and materials through its own policies and procedures. In a survey of state foreign language consultants during the summer of 1977, Warriner (39) reported that twenty-two of the forty-two states responding indicated that they had some kind of adoption system regulated by the state.

Considering both the state committees and boards, as well as local textbook committees involved in evaluation and choice, one begins to understand how removed individual teachers may be or feel from the actual process of deciding which materials will be best for their classrooms. As discouraging as this might seem at the outset, it does force foreign language teachers to become as well acquainted with the materials being considered as is practically possible in order to qualify them as spokespersons for a particular text or set of materials.

It seems appropriate here to state some advantages and disadvantages of the freedom of choice as opposed to the minimization of choice by local or state policies. Teachers with complete freedom to choose their texts are able to make judgments more directly applicable to their own students, facilities, and objectives. For better or worse, they live with the decisions they make, and they are privileged to be able to change those decisions with few, if any, restrictions. The teachers under local or state textbook policies and restrictions, while at times having to sacrifice their particular students' needs or disregard some of their own objectives and capabilities, are forced to sit down with colleagues in order to establish common district goals for foreign language study and determine appropriate evaluative criteria for their materials selection. In this situation, decision is indeed made by consensus, and the individual teacher's opinion is often averaged out. Such a procedure must be viewed without question as a constraint; yet the opportunities exist here for constant cooperation, and for the sharing and creating of new ideas and directions, by virtue of the common textbook bond and generally accepted goals.

Some external considerations governing choice

To the local school district or committee making textbook and materials decisions, several external factors may powerfully influence the decision-making process. The accreditation of local schools can push textbook board members or individual teachers to vote in the direction of a certain textbook or methodology, simply because recommendations from a previous accreditation visit had suggested weaknesses in that methodological area.

A proclamation issued to the state textbook committee in Texas (37) clearly delineates the general approach each listed foreign language textbook will take. In a recent proclamation for the call for French Level III textbooks, for example, the specific reading requirements are detailed in this manner: "... material in French of literary and cultural content is provided, representing both contemporary and past French writers. The following types of material should be present: short stories, plays or excerpts from plays, poetry, legends, fables, folk tales, biographical sketches, and examples of journalistic styles from newspapers and/or magazines of French-speaking countries." The publishers who decide to bid in this area will have to meet these state criteria, and the teachers will have to select from the textbooks they submit.

State guidelines for the individual languages, where they exist, indicate the directions or approaches foreign language textbooks should take, yet they should permit sufficient flexibility to allow local education agencies to make intelligent choices which will relate well to their own teachers and students.

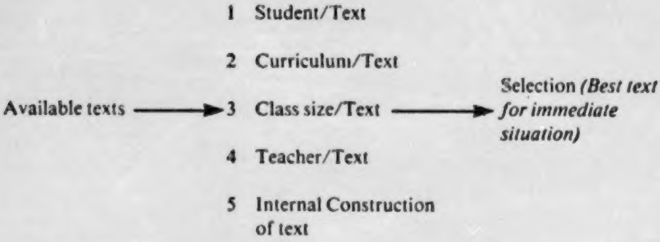
District guidelines, too, will play a significant role in influencing a particular school or teacher to opt for certain materials that may or may not ideally suit the individual classroom, course, or teacher. LaBouve (22) stresses the importance of a logical hierarchy of curriculum development from the state to the individual teacher, which in Texas, for example, will form a framework for second language teaching. This will include a core document which addresses principal philosophical issues of second-language learning and teaching and presents a number of options within the state-approved curriculum. State guidelines in the commonly taught languages radiate from the core document and provide a basis for the local district to construct a curriculum guide which addresses its specific priorities. The local school's curriculum guide then becomes an important document for teachers in developing specific lesson plans for their courses.

Some internal considerations governing choice

Within the individual school and classrooms, influence on choice can still be felt. Although district-wide guidelines may be general enough to mesh with a teacher's personal materials choice, specific school or program objectives and needs may force reconsideration of an otherwise totally appropriate choice for the students.

Davison (6) has postulated the following schema for the principal internal factors which must influence and affect the selection process:

Selection factor category


1 Student/Text
2 Curriculum/Text
Available texts
3 Class size/Text
Selection *(Best text for immediate situation)*
4 Teacher/Text
5 Internal Construction of text

The influence of students on choice of materials should be a prime consideration. If we wish to attend to the learning objectives of our students, we realize that certain grammar-oriented texts would be inappropriate for an exploratory course. We would want instead to adopt a text with features such as thematic units with a conversational presentation of the language, short chapters, and minimal formal grammar. The same principle would hold true for a class of scientific German, where a conversation-based text emphasizing oral skills would not fit the students' objectives or needs.

The age of the students will play an important role, too, in text selection. A junior high class of beginning language students will require a text with a different interest level in dialogue than a college text would present. Likewise, students' language background might influence text choice in a geographical area where the second language is spoken widely.

The influence of curriculum on choice applies its own constraints. The objectives of local curriculum, along with the time available for instruction, and the ideological and methodological approaches can all affect the materials selection process. If a local district advocates an oral skills development priority, for example, this fact will help evaluators better determine materials. The time factor will also help an evaluator decide if the scope of materials being considered is too broad or too narrow for the students.

Class size may be the overriding factor in the selection of a particular text. A very large class with more than one level may necessitate adoption of a text which lends itself much more easily to an individualization process. This critical issue of several language levels in one classroom at one time places a heavy burden on the teacher and the students and will greatly influence the types of material chosen. A very small class, on the other hand, with goals of learning to speak and understand a language will not want to use a text oriented to reading and writing.

Perhaps the most fundamental factor operating in a selection process is the teacher. Is special training needed to teach from this textbook? Do teachers really like the book? Does the book meet their needs and desires? One of the most effective responses to these problems may lie in the existence of a very thorough and detailed teacher's manual with ample instructions as to suggested use.

A case study

In order to understand the decision-making process for local textbook adoption in a state where selection is limited to a list of books approved by a state committee, we may consider the procedures of the city of Austin, Texas, to be fairly typical. The description may be helpful to those local schools, with or without state adoption policies, seeking to organize efforts for effective selection procedures in adopting foreign language textbooks.

The first step in this particular procedure is the state's issuance of a textbook proclamation listing the needs and general content specifications. For foreign languages, as for all content areas, these proclamations are prepared by the state supervisor of the language concerned. According to a Texas Education Agency bulletin (36), a fifteen-member committee for state textbooks is then appointed by the Commissioner of Education. The majority of these educators must have recognized expertise in the subject areas scheduled to receive new materials. The committee members may appoint advisors to help review materials under consideration. Parents and other citizens may also review materials and voice objections at public hearings scheduled for that purpose. Publishing companies then have the right to speak in defense of the materials criticized. The final choices by the committee are then made, and materials are recommended for listing to the Commissioner of Education. The number of books to be recommended may not exceed five in any one area (e.g., five texts for Level III French), or consist of fewer than three unless the board approves a smaller number. The specifications for the duration of contracts are determined by the State Board of Education.

Since every school district is required to select from the adopted textbooks, unless it opts to purchase its own materials with local funds, the local process begins immediately after the state has listed the books from which the local district must select.

The Austin Independent School District, according to Mellenbruch (25), has twenty secondary schools (grades 7–12) with sixty-six foreign language teachers and slightly more than 5,000 foreign language students (Spanish—3130; French—809; German—772; Latin—409; Russian—18). During their first workshop, Austin teachers set up a committee to look at available evaluative instruments, keeping in mind the provisions addressed in the state proclamation. This committee, consisting of one teacher from each school, then meets to devise an instrument of its own to evaluate foreign language textbooks. This form is usually different for every language and level. The form designed for the 1978 adoption of German texts, Levels I and II is shown in Figure 1.

The next step is for the Superintendent to appoint a local committee of fifteen teachers to select textbooks in all content areas. Of these fifteen, only one will be a foreign language teacher. The one foreign language representative then meets with the foreign language advisors chosen from each school, as well as with one parent and one student, and hears their evaluations of the individual textbooks, for or against. A vote is then taken among the advisors and delivered to the foreign language member of the city textbook committee. Meanwhile, a lay citizens' group appointed by the superintendent meets to discuss texts and offers its objections to the superintendent for his consideration. The vote on all local textbooks is then made at the final meeting of the committee, and the recommendations are submitted for approval of the district's Board of Education. It must be said that the foreign language committee member is not obligated by law to vote as recommended by the advisors, but he or she will almost always abide by their decision.

Evaluation of content

This section has a dual purpose: 1) to allow teachers and text evaluators in prescriptive local or state adoption situations to become even more conscious of all the factors which need to be considered in materials evaluation; 2) to suggest to the teacher who is *evaluator*, *chooser*, and *user* a way of working through text evaluation in a systematic, responsible way. In either situation, teachers should gather sample materials, prepare a chart evaluation sheet which suits local needs, and begin to compare the materials with individual, district, or state objectives.

Two areas for evaluation are proposed: text content and factors beyond content. In each category the major areas are addressed in the introductory paragraph, and several yes/no questions follow which may help readers to establish a checklist applicable to the local situation. (Figure 2 at the end of this section provides a sample format for charting responses.)

These areas of concern, while not exhaustive, do represent a sampling of evaluation forms from states having statewide or local adoptive policies, as well as criteria set forth by several methodological experts.

Approach to skills teaching and learning

As Rivers (28) indicates, the first area of concern will involve the method on which the textbook is based and the approach the author employs to

Fig. 1 Analysis of German textbooks, Levels I and II,
Austin Independent School District, Austin, Texas

Rate Scale: 1 2 3 4 5, 1 is highest and 5 is lowest.

1. Development of four language skills

_____ A. Recognizes importance of introducing all four skills and generally observes the accepted relative emphasis.
_____ B. Narrative, with more reading materials than dialogues.

2. Scope

A. Dominant objective—language competence, to which are eventually added
____ 1. cultural insight
____ 2. literary acquaintance

3. Organization for school schedules

_____ A. Organized to fit into schedule of usual class periods and terms.
_____ B. Not so arranged.

4. Presentation of materials

_____ A. Material of first weeks or months designed for a period of oral presentation. Limited need for written German.
B. New learnings presented in
____ 1. pictures and gestures
____ 2. form of narrative
____ 3. model sentences usable in conversation
_____ C. Structure is learned by use rather than analysis
_____ D. Exercises enable student to adapt new learnings to his own conversation without reference to English
_____ E. Sentences authentic in German cultures
_____ F. Provision is made for gradual and guided progress from mimicry and memorization to free use of German in conversation.

5. Psychology of learning

_____ A. Presents language models which show recognition response, reproduction and opportunity to solve problems of varying difficulty
_____ B. Is based on the development of skills to solve problems
_____ C. Provides models to be imitated for both spoken and written German
_____ D. Provides for repetition and reintroduction of material previously learned.

6. Exercises

_____ A. Copious and varied drills dealing with language elements that have occurred in the utterances presented in dialogue, narrative or sentence form

7. Reading material

_____ A. Any reading materials foster the cultural or literary objectives or both
B. Cultural information
____ 1. factual
____ 2. authentic
____ 3. representative
____ 4. important
____ 5. of interest to the learner
C. Other reading selections for their quality
____ 1. as examples of literature
____ 2. for appropriateness of their length
____ 3. for their interest to the learner

8. Word study

_____ A. Promotes the learning of vocabulary by observation and use in context and not in lexical lists.

9. Structure analysis

_____ A. Explanations are in English with attempts to explain structures in German
_____ B. In latter part of text, structures that have been gradually learned are drawn together in a clear and concise way for ready reference.

10. Lesson and end vocabulary

_____ A. Appropriate lists of German phrases, idioms, and words with or without English equivalents in both ends of sections and in a complete list at the end of the book.

11. Use of English

_____ A. Used for explanations
_____ B. Used to establish the meaning of what is to be learned (goals)

12. Instructions to the teacher

A. Instructions concerning
____ 1. Functions and objectives available
____ 2. Presentation of the material to the class
____ 3. Techniques for over-learning the basic material
____ 4. Techniques for procedure with a particular unit whenever the material demands it

guarantee optimal student learning. Chastain (4) emphasizes that three steps of the learning process should be evident in foreign language textbooks: provision for *understanding, practicing,* and *expressing oneself* in the language. The teachers evaluating materials will want to compare the compatibility of their own methodological philosophy with that of the authors, and will need to consider the learning styles and abilities of their students in relation to the work proposed for them in the text.

Questions:

- Is the approach to skills teaching and learning a balanced one?
- Is sufficient opportunity present for classroom development of the oral skills?
- Is the approach one which has a logical progression from easy to difficult?
- Am I, the teacher, at ease with the methodology advocated and used in the materials?
- Is there a prereading phase incorporated into the beginning materials presentation?
- Do the skills production activities progress from controlled to free expression?

Presentation of language

The nature of language and the means by which the student is introduced to contemporary speech and prose should be weighed carefully. Gregory (14) cautions us to become more aware of the potential problems of language presentation. Dialogues, for example, are most often *written* in textbooks to be *read* as if *heard* and to be *spoken* as if not *written.* Expecting students to make the appropriate adjustments may be asking a great deal more than is possible, and this should be taken into account when approaching the language presentation. Decisions will be based, therefore, upon a desire for colloquial speech represented in written form in the text, as compared to the desire for formal language, for example, in a literary or journalistic context. Final decision may depend on such external factors as the language presentation in tape programs accompanying the text.

Questions:

- Is spoken language introduced to the student before written language?
- Is the written language introduced as a separate concern?
- Are there dialogues?
- Is the spoken language representative of various levels of speech?
- Are slang words and expressions freely used or avoided?
- Is written language representative of contemporary and past writers?

Pronunciation/Phonology

The attention paid to systematic introduction to the individual sounds of the language, sound combinations, intonation, stress, etc., may be a strong indication of the over-all importance given by the textbook authors to the spoken language. Grittner (15) suggests that consideration be given to the attention paid to English sounds closely equivalent to those of the target language. Cowles (5) also includes a question on the inclusion of pronunciation exercises and their relation to textual vocabulary. All teachers desirous of spending considerable classroom time with the spoken language will want to see thorough coverage of the sound system of the language being learned.

Questions:

- Is time devoted to the phonological system of the language?
- Is the pronunciation treatment relegated to a special section of the text? (Is it integrated systematically into the body of the text?)
- Are there pronunciation exercises and/or tests to encourage student mastery of the sounds?
- Are exercises and tests of pronunciation based on the vocabulary and structures already assimilated by the student?
- Are there diagrammatic aids to show organ placement for the difficult sounds of the language, or for all sounds?
- Are English equivalent sounds given where applicable, or comparisons made to the articulation of certain sounds in English?

Grammar

Methodological preferences will undoubtedly play a considerable role in determining adequate grammatical coverage and satisfactory presentation. Special consideration may need to be given to the way in which grammar is presented. Galloway (12) reports that in South Carolina evaluators are expected to consider whether the grammar determines the content of a particular unit, or whether a thematic design determines the grammar to be presented. Loew (24) indicates that the State of New York advocates presenting structures which are the most useful and natural in conveying the ideas and interests of the students in the grade grouping under consideration.

Questions:

- Is the grammar presented inductively? Deductively? Does it vary with the topic?
- Is the language of grammar presentation English?
- Are specific structures used for grammar presentation?
- Are structures reintroduced in later units?

- Does the grammar correlate well with the presentation of language in the unit?
- Are explanations clear and to the point?
- Are sufficient examples provided?
- Are exceptions to the rule treated or avoided?

Exercises and drills

As with grammar, teachers will rely on their methodological convictions as to the scope and sequence of the exercises and drills provided. Scanlan (29) suggests considering whether drills are correlated with the presentation of structure and vocabulary, as well as with the text readings. Exercises that are progressively difficult and a sufficient number of drills will allow teachers to be flexible and adaptable to their students' needs and learning styles.

Questions:

- Are the exercises and drills sufficient in number and variety to guarantee a reasonable assimilation of the structures presented?
- Do the exercises use the vocabulary of past units as well as the present one?
- Do the exercises have an interest level that will appeal to the students?
- Are there opportunities for the students to communicate information about themselves while manipulating the structures of the drills?
- Do the exercises proceed from easy to difficult?
- Do the exercises provide for the use and practice of all the skills?
- Are answers provided the students for self-correction?

Vocabulary

An important consideration in vocabulary presentation is the extent to which the vocabulary presented in a particular unit is used consistently in the drills and exercises of that unit as well as in subsequent units. Cowles (5) and Rivers (28) suggest that teachers consider the existence and advisability of thematic vocabulary groupings. The unit vocabulary may determine the presentation of language within the unit, or, the dialogue or reading selection may determine the vocabulary to be learned. Some recent textbooks use boldface type to indicate vocabulary for active acquisition and regular type for passive recognition vocabulary.

Questions:

- Are there vocabulary lists with glosses in each unit as well as an end vocabulary?
- Are there thematic vocabulary groupings?

- Is the vocabulary suitable to the interests of the students?
- Is the vocabulary introduced in context?
- Are the translations or explanations of new words adequate?
- Are synonyms or antonyms in the language ever used to convey meaning, or are they always translated into English?
- Is the text vocabulary based on a frequency count?
- Is new vocabulary used in grammar presentations, exercises, and drills?

Communicative activities

For those teachers aiming for maximal use of "real" language for students, Birckbichler, Knorre, and Schulz (3) suggest a close look at the skill-getting and skill-using activities available in the text to determine the percentage of meaningful activities as opposed to manipulative drills. They stress the importance of giving the student adequate opportunities for practicing grammar and vocabulary in meaningful contexts. One might also question the sequencing from mechanical to communicative tasks, from the simple to the complex. As Galyean (13) has stated, teachers need to allow time for the use and development of the four principal categories of student behavior in the use of the language being learned: rote, impersonal, personal, and self-disclosing. Here, the rote provides opportunities for pattern manipulation; the impersonal allows questions about a second or third party, such as: "What do you think John is going to do after school?"; the personal requires some factual information about the person questioned (e.g., "Do you have brothers and sisters? How many?"); the self-disclosing behavior allows questions such as: "What films do you prefer and why?" The number of opportunities afforded the student in the personal and self-disclosing categories may well influence some teachers to choose one set of materials over another.

Questions:

- Are there opportunities for both mechanical and meaningful use of the language throughout the text?
- Is the percentage of time devoted to either the manipulative or meaningful too heavy, or is the text well-balanced in this regard?
- Do the communicative activities progress from easy to difficult?
- Are meaningful activities structured to provide opportunities for impersonal, personal, and self-disclosing questions and responses?

Culture

The presentation of cultural material in a textbook may be thoroughly integrated with the dialogues, readings, and structures presented, and/or may be self-contained in specific cultural supplements to individual textbook units. Joiner (19) offers two principal criteria for judging the cultural content of foreign language texts: illustrations and textual material of a cultural nature. Here, the types of illustrations and printed matter are to be judged as well as the segments of society represented and the overall impressions created by the materials. In a third category of general questions relating to culture, she emphasizes questions relating to stereotyping, geographical representation of peoples speaking the target language, and the contrasts made between the foreign and American cultures. Teachers are encouraged to consider the supplementary materials on culture and the teaching of which are available for purchase.

Other questions concerning culture may involve the balance between the historical and the contemporary.

Questions:

- Will the cultural information provided be of interest to the students involved?
- Is there sufficient cultural material provided?
- Is culture reflected in the presentation of language?
- Are all segments of society represented in the texts and illustrations?
- Is there geographical representation of the peoples who speak the target language?
- Are there comparisons made between the foreign culture and American culture?
- Are similarities as well as differences between the two cultures mentioned?
- Is a significant amount of time spent on contemporary youth in the same age group as the students who will be using the text?
- Are there descriptions of some of the nonverbal behaviors typical to the culture?
- Are past cultural achievements reflected in the text?

Scope and sequence

Scanlan (29) insists that not only the scope and sequence of material within a particular textbook must be considered, but also the extent to which each book relates to others in the series. In the case of a series, adequate review of the material presented in one text should be provided in succeeding volumes. The scope and sequence questions will depend on the goals of a particular teacher or program as they relate to time, student interests and needs, and the adaptability and flexibility of both the materials and the teacher.

Questions:

- Does each unit follow a sequential pattern?

- Are the number of new structural units or items and vocabulary words per lesson reasonable?
- Does this rate of introduction seem realistic for both students and teachers in terms of the amount of material presented?
- Is the progression of material well articulated from unit to unit so as to provide continuity and re-entry of vocabulary and structure?
- Are there review units to give the students the opportunity to see their progress on a larger scale than with individual units?
- Is the scope of the material sufficient or excessive for the amount of time allotted to the course?

Adaptability and flexibility

No textbook should be expected to be all inclusive in its material or its scope. Teachers must learn to adapt materials to their teaching styles, their students' learning styles, and external constraints on classroom time and management. A particular area of concern (Cowles, 5) may be the specific adaptability of the text material to oral work within the classroom. At a time when students are demanding oral skills development, and teachers are seeking to provide that development, flexible and adaptable materials are all important.

Questions:

- Do the text materials lend themselves to different student abilities and interests?
- Is there provision for small group, large group, and individual language practice?
- Would different learning styles of students be addressed sufficiently by the text?
- Are there materials available to permit more systematic individualization of learning, such as learning activity packets?
- Could a teacher decide to skip certain material within the text without losing complete control of the structure and/or vocabulary?

Supplementary materials

Supplementary materials available to the foreign language teacher appear to increase with each succeeding textbook series. The time available, the quality of materials available, and the integration of materials with the text material are prime areas for consideration in determining what to use and what one might be able to do without.

Questions:

- Do the following supplementary materials exist? Workbooks? Tapes? Tests? Flashcards? Visuals? Filmstrips?
- If there is a workbook, do its exercises correlate well with the text in vocabulary, structure, and over-all difficulty?
- Do the exercises basically duplicate those of the text or do they present new material?
- Could the workbook exercises also serve as testing exercises?
- If there are supplementary reading materials, do they match the acquired structure and vocabulary abilities of the student?
- Are the materials of sufficient interest for the level of the students involved?
- If there are records, tapes, filmstrips, films, etc., do they present a solid structural base which correlates well with the text material?
- Would these materials be of interest to most students?

Tests

A testing program accompanying a textbook series can be a boon to the teacher if the tests provided are well constructed and provide adequately for the measurement of the skills emphasized by the teachers. In its guidelines for evaluating textbook materials, the Montana Office of Public Instruction (Jackson, 18) asks whether the tests emphasize listening-speaking skills or reading-writing skills and stresses the need to compare the answer with the claims of the instructional materials.

Questions

- Does a testing program exist?
- Does the content of the tests appear to measure what it purports to measure?
- Are quizzes provided as well as unit or larger tests?
- Do these tests measure all four skills?
- Is adequate testing provided for the oral skills?
- Are there tests on the cultural information provided?
- Is free expression permitted at some point during the testing program?
- Are grading keys and/or suggestions provided?

Evaluation: Beyond content

Several areas of concern not directly involving the content of the textbook materials need to be considered. Warriner (40) concludes that in the foreign language classroom, "... the textbook is omni-present and ever open." If this is so, it becomes even more important that the materials one chooses meet as many of our criteria as possible, both within and without the content area. We must, as Bartel (2) relates, reconcile our teaching habits and personal preferences and abilities with the materials available, all the while tempering our ideals with some practicality.

The Modern Language Association of America in 1962 prepared a list (31) of the thirteen criteria most important in the selection of foreign language textbooks and materials. Of these, five may be considered somewhat beyond the specific content characteristics sought by teachers. These five, and four additional categories compiled from other state and local forms or guidelines from the professional literature, are listed together with specific questions or areas that might be considered.

Organization for school schedules

Textbook authors and publishers have been indicted for putting "... too much between the covers to cover" (Warriner, 39). We compound the situation by feeling compelled to get the material in our textbooks *taught;* somehow in the process students frequently do not get the materials *learned.* Time will always be a constraint, yet we can unify ourselves as a profession in a call to publishers for more realistic and manageable basic texts. They will respond to such a unified call for obvious financial reasons. Meanwhile, we must take a close look at present school schedules and attempt to relate a text's flexibility and adaptability to the time available.

Questions:

- Does the organization of the material fit with the school year organization, including all possible ways of adaptation?
- Does the organization of material fit with the school day organization, with all possibilities for adaptation?
- Would inservice (preschool) sessions be needed for adoption of these materials?
- Is it possible to have a publisher's representative demonstrate materials for the school before the academic year begins?
- Would the school's schedule permit this kind of inservice training?

Lesson and end vocabulary

Although the content of the text vocabulary has been discussed, more detailed attention might be paid to the existence of a lesson-end and/or a text-end vocabulary. The evaluator will also want to consider the thematic groupings of vocabulary.

Questions:

- Do lesson-end and/or text-end vocabularies exist?

- Are there thematic vocabulary groupings within text units?
- Are English equivalents given?
- Are they ever intensified in the target language or by visuals?

Use of English

This area of concern is one of greatly individual philosophies and preferences. Use of English may be considered for sections on pronunciation, dialogue translations, grammar presentations, cultural explanations, vocabulary glosses, directions to the student, and specific exercises for translation.

Questions:

- Are dialogue translations provided?
- Are vocabulary words glossed in English?
- Are translations ever required from the target language to English and/or from English to the target language?
- Are grammar explanations provided in English?
- Are culture sections presented all or partially in English?

Instructions for the teacher

The Virginia State Department of Education lists four categories that might be checked in a teacher's manual or edition: a linguistic description of the language; assistance with classroom techniques in accord with the text's criteria; testing material in keeping with the methods employed; and, fourth, advice for the effective use of translation techniques. The Oklahoma State Department of Education (26) adds the availability of keys for all reading selections, exercises, tests, and workbooks. Other additional areas to consider in a teacher's manual are hints for teaching culture, and scripts for tapes when they contain material not in the text.

Questions:

- Is there a separate section or manual for the teacher?
- Does it have detailed explanations and instructions for the use of the text?
- Is there a suggested daily or weekly lesson plan approach?
- Do teaching hints include time for culture discussion and exchange?
- Are answer keys provided throughout the teacher's edition?
- Is there a detailed description of the language from the view of applied linguistics for the teacher?

Layout

EPIE (7) identifies many criteria by which one might judge the layout or technical quality of a textbook. Some of these are: editing, prose style, economy, design, quality of paper and binding, quality of photographs, drawings and graphics, the durability, manageability, and distinguishability of the integral parts of the materials, and the labeling completeness, organization, and locations of labeling. In addition, one might wish to consider the aesthetic appeal of the cover and the general format. At the same time one must be careful not to judge for or against on these bases alone. The medium should not be the exclusive message.

Questions:

- Are errors minimal?
- Is the prose style satisfactory?
- Are the print, photographs and drawings of high quality and clarity?
- Is the text easy to follow in its format and individual units?
- Are the materials well organized?
- Is the text appealing to the casual as well as the concerned observer?

Experience and expertise of author(s)

Foreign language teachers cannot be expected to be familiar with the background and expertise of every textbook author. However, reviews of most textbooks are available in the professional journals, and they should be read carefully for possible help in evaluating the text in question. The degree of familiarity with an author's past experience and expertise should obviously not, in itself, cause a text evaluator to accept or reject a text.

Questions:

- Are you familiar with the experience and expertise of those involved in the development of the materials under consideration?
- If not, can you find out from the professional literature or through professional organizations and contacts about the qualifications and past work of the author(s)?
- Once familiar with this expertise, are you satisfied with the type of approach you believe the author(s) will take in the materials under consideration?

Evidence in development and research

Klein (21) reports that continuing efforts are being made to hold publishers accountable for their products. This means that collection and analysis of data must be available which prove that a particular publisher "... has improved the instructional effectiveness of that product before it reaches the market and then continues to gather data from learners in order to improve the quality and reliability of that material during its full market life" (p. 10). Klein (21) identifies this concept as *learner verification and revision* (LVR) and reports that California and Florida have enacted laws and policies regarding it. Though the impact of such laws may cause serious problems in the future development and design of foreign language textbooks, it also may work to guarantee a higher quality of material for our students.

There appears to be no clear definition of LVR in terms of what data might be acceptable from a legal point of view. Teacher testimony would certainly appear to be less valid than evidence collected from students in a controlled situation, but the generalizability of too limited a number of students might be equally invalid. The desirable aspects of LVR, however, are that publishers would be required to follow up on what happens to their materials when they are used by students and teachers. Through such communication teachers could let publishers know of their needs for revision of present and hopes for revisions and for development of new materials.

Questions:

- Is formal evidence of any kind provided by the publishers as to success of the materials?
- Is informal teacher testimony available on the materials?
- Have the professional journal reviews of the texts indicated past and probable future success?

Biases

The biases which a foreign language textbook author may inadvertently exhibit can cause an undesirable negative stereotyping about members of the target culture. EPIE (7) shows these possible biases to be: racial, religious, sexual, ethnic, regional, occupational, classificational, physical, or political. Detailed research by Stern (33) in her evaluation of twenty-five foreign language textbooks shows blatant sex stereotyping and a severe restriction of female roles.

- Is there obvious stereotyping in photos or texts in any of the above categories?
- Are there gaps between men's and women's roles in professional or personal life situations?

Costs

Budgetary considerations always play a role in the adoption of textbooks. The greatly increased cost of texts and materials is an important factor in reaching a decision on materials to be used.

Questions:

- Will the state provide textbooks at no cost to the student?
- If not, will the local district provide these materials?
- Can the school afford the purchase of the supplementary materials upon adoption of the materials being considered?
- If not, can arrangements be made to purchase some or all of these materials over time?
- Is the text viable without the supplementary materials?
- Is there sufficient equipment in the local schools to allow for use of supplementary materials without additional purchases?

It is advisable that each teacher or group of teachers prepare a chart which addresses the above areas (and others, if applicable) and selects the questions to be answered for individual or district objectives. A general impression category will allow a reviewer to see at a glance the overall acceptability of a text. Explaining specific positive and negative factors will then detail these impressions. Finally, the rating in each category will reflect the considerations of the textbook reviewer. The chart might take the form shown in Figure 2.

Further questions and considerations

Certainly countless other questions may be added to those already listed above, both within the area of content and beyond. Some very general but crucial questions remaining have immediate relevance to almost every teacher:

- What kinds of students will be using these materials?
- For how long will these students study the language?
- Will these materials encourage the further study of the language by their approach, quantity, quality, or difficulty level?
- To what extent does this series of textbook materials form a cohesive, balanced, well articulated program?
- Is the old adage still true that "the first book is just right, but the second is overwhelming!"?

One of the most effective post-evaluation, pre-selection strategies is reported by Elrod (8) for the Spring Branch Independent School District in

Fig. 2 Sample evaluation chart

Name of text ________________
Author(s) ________________
Publisher ________________
Date of Publication ____________
Revised? ________________
Cost ________________

Rating Scale 1, 2, 3, 4, 5
Highest = 1
Lowest = 5

Evaluation Category	General Impression		Specific Reactions		Rating
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	
I. Approach to Skills, Teaching and Learning					
Questions *Yes/No*					
1. ?					
2. ?					
3. ?					
II. Presentation of Language					
Questions					
1. ?					
2. ?					
3. ?					
III. Pronunciation/Phonology					

(IV-XXI Categories would follow)

Houston, Texas. Lesson plan flow charts were designed for four units of a particular text under adoption consideration. This allowed the teachers an opportunity to see in detail how a unit would work in a typical classroom in terms of time, coverage, interest, and local objectives.

Phillips (27) reports that a school in Pennsylvania made up sample lesson plans as part of the evaluation procedure and carried the process one step further. The faculty narrowed their choice to two texts, then planned and taught from each for three days. The final result was that the teachers selected what had originally been the second choice. This may indeed have been the result of matching materials with student reaction, thereby allowing a more student-centered choice. Kimbro (20) also reports the extensive use of students' insight and reaction to prospective texts.

Whatever questions still remain in the final stage of selection, one thing appears clear. The evaluation process is only as good as the results it brings. Each teacher must look critically at the materials available before making an intelligent decision, must follow through in attempting to make the materials work, and must continually reassess textbook weaknesses, student weaknesses, and teacher weaknesses in the continuing process of finding the most effective use of the instructional time.

Bartel (2) indicts teachers justifiably for an all too common occurrence. "We behave as though we believe that one book is the cause and another the solution to the problems and dissatisfactions we experience with our respective foreign language courses. And if we could only find the right set of materials everything would be wonderful!" (p. 326).

Indeed, we are always in search of near perfection with materials, but we might be better off to realize the impracticality of ever finding the "ideal." We can instead admit, as did Lafayette (23), that: "I do not want a book that is going to dictate to me what is going to happen in class. I want a text with many options, one which I can adapt not only to the needs of my students but also to my own whims and abilities." If we can find that text which nearly makes up for our weaknesses yet supports our strengths, many of our textbook dreams will have come true.

A summary of what teachers have said and are still saying about the present state of textbooks may help us look forward to future needs. Warriner's (39) survey identified eight major problem areas with regard to the amount of material in the typical foreign language textbook: articulation between levels, costs, teacher frustrations at having to cover the material, insufficient books to provide for overlap, teacher frustration at having to cope rather than to create, superficial learning effects, the resultant student frustration, and parent frustration at not understanding why the students' texts do not reflect the year in which they enrolled.

Several years ago Steiner (32) identified some directions in which textbooks would have to move to meet the needs of contemporary students and teachers. She indicated an abundance of cultural material, a flexible and adaptable sequence of materials published frequently in segments, an increased emphasis on career education, more self-teaching materials, a new emphasis on peoples living in or near the United States speaking the target language, more affectively oriented materials, single skill textbooks, and cheap, consummable materials.

Some of these changes in text materials have occurred, but not to the extent that Steiner (32) predicted. Most of us want more (less?) and better *now*. Strasheim (34) criticizes texts as being already "overwritten by a third to a half." Efforts are being made to meet the demands and needs of teachers in this regard. In South Carolina Enwall (9) reports that two-level textbook series may now be officially spread over a three year period to give teachers the time needed for verification and more active use of language.

One might be tempted to think that those teachers who have no constraints in making textbook choices are the fortunate ones. As Hilaire (16) points out, however, such a situation is not as anarchistic as it appears, " . . . since in actual practice, about five publishers per language dominate the schools almost completely, and these are generally those on the approved lists of states. . . . Approved lists or texts give states . . . a real power in influencing publishers to tailor content of texts and materials." Thus even the seemingly unencumbered teacher has constraints that he or she would never imagine.

Summary

The evaluation and selection of foreign language textbooks and materials is always a difficult process, and more is involved than a teacher's direct contact with a publisher. We must also recognize that the *evaluator* is not always the *chooser.*

Factors external to the local school, including accreditation standards and state and district-wide guidelines, all play an important role in the decisions to be made.

Factors internal to the school may also narrow the possibility of choice even further through such pressures as local school or program objectives, student objectives, teacher objectives, and administrative concerns.

Once the teacher or committee takes on the specific textbook evaluation process, several factors must be considered: approach to skills teaching and learning, presentation of language, pronunciation, grammar, exercises and drills, vocabulary, communicative activities, culture, scope and sequence, adaptability and flexibility, supplementary materials, and tests.

Beyond content considerations, other factors become important as well: organization for school schedules, lesson and end vocabulary, use of English, instructions for the teacher, layout, experience and expertise of author(s), evidence in development and research, biases, and costs.

When the final choices are made, the teachers must adjust to and work with the materials to the very best of their abilities, admitting their weaknesses and those in the materials, giving themselves and the materials a chance to be effective, and constantly evaluating themselves and the materials for future reconsideration.

Recommendations

Our keys to success in arriving at intelligent decisions about evaluation and selection seem to be dual: being knowledgeable and being vocal. We need to educate ourselves in every way possible for careful analysis of textbooks and materials that will suit our needs and those of our students.

We need to consider alternatives to the sometimes frustrating single textbook choice. Loew (24) recommends consideration of a multiple textbook adoption strategy, where possible, as a permanent strategy or as a trial in the final steps of the selection process. We should also consider *no* textbook as a viable strategy for the very creative, materials-laden, enterprising teacher. With this strategy, willing teachers might be able to find the most effective pacing of material with regard to their own goals and those of their students. More interesting materials would be accessible to students, and in turn they would be open to more creative endeavors.

It is important to attend professional meetings and to scour the publishers' exhibits to see and to hear for ourselves what is going on in other successful classrooms, and what materials are available. We must faithfully read the professional journals and textbook reviews to better educate ourselves as to the successful strategies and the highly regarded "new" materials. We must be vocal and articulate in letting the publishers know what is wrong with present materials and what they can do to make them more suitable.

We must finally admit that the two most important items for consideration in the selection of a textbook are "me the teacher" (Lafayette, 23), and the students we serve. As teachers, we bring specific talents, capabilities, motivations, goals, and hopes to our foreign language classrooms. Our students, too, bring their talents, capabilities, motivations, goals, and hopes to us. In order to make our classrooms student-centered and effective, thoughtful approaches to materials evaluation and selection will help us build for success.

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Stage 4

Beyond the Desk

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The Essence of the classroom environment

On Monday morning, before uttering a single word as she entered her classroom, the high school teacher went to the chalkboard and in Spanish wrote the following open-ended sentence: "I think Tarzan____." Immediately the mood of the class changed. Most of the students reacted to this stimulus attentively. Several volunteered inputs in Spanish to complete the sentence. Some of the volunteered responses were:

I think Tarzan lives in a tree.
I think Tarzan wears tennis shoes.
I think Tarzan eats plastic bananas.
I think Tarzan prefers to eat hamburgers.
I think Tarzan teaches at this school now.

After her students created these sentences, the teacher spent about three minutes asking several who-what-where-when questions about the content of the students' responses.

For approximately five minutes the whole class practiced a lot of Spanish, laughed several times, recorded the sentences in their notebooks, and comprehended all the language structures they had heard, seen, and written.

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Moreover, the students perceived a smile on the teacher's face. They felt especially delighted that the teacher provided an opportunity for them to set their imagination in motion and create original thought.

When later questioned about their experience, the students explained that they enjoy practicing the target language by using ideas they invent. They appreciate the teacher's approach in facilitating the release of their imagination, because they believe they are really communicating. The teacher uses their new ideas for further language practice. In addition, the pupils believe their confidence and self-esteem expand as they participate in class through the use of their own ideas and those of their peers.

The teacher was content. She had created an effective environment on Monday morning by giving her students another opportunity to become part of the lesson-making process, and they had responded with interest. The creation of an effective environment occurs when the teacher takes into account specific and perceived needs in the life situation of the students: self-esteem, recognition, feelings, the release of the learner's humor, imagination and opinions.

Inner and outer environments

What is the environment of the classroom? Where does it reside? In humanistic terms, there is an outer environment and an inner environment (Gallwey, 18; Gallwey and Kriegel, 19,20; Jourard 26,27,28; Maslow, 33,35,36). The former entails all of the physical properties a person can perceive or sense from the exterior: space, objects, other people in the classroom, light, smell, and sound (including music), the teacher's voice, whispering, and the outside drone of moving vehicles. The latter, inner environment, resides inside the individual and may consist of two major properties: 1) the degree of awareness and perceptual finesse and 2) the affective domain. The inner environment exists in both student and teacher. What the teacher is able to do creatively with the almost infinite amount of inner and outer properties of the total environment is an index to the teacher's probable success.

While there is only one outer environment with its various properties, there are as many inner environments as there are individuals (including the teacher) in the classroom (Reinert, 45; Zampogna et al., 53). Even though we take comfort in having to deal with only one outer environment, that notion is somewhat misleading. Each individual, with his distinct inner environment, perceives the outer environment differently from the way others do. Furthermore, the total environment also has long-term and short-term dimensions. Teacher and pupil needs change from day to day; so does course content. Moreover, each day brings with it its own environment: sunny or cloudy skies, rain, snow, chill, heat, wind, and thunder. On a short time basis, parts of the environment may be expected to change often. Indeed, variety in the lesson plan, an inescapable part of the environment, is desirable. But, for the longer term, an overall continuity from day to day is also desirable to fix pupils' expectation toward the direction in which the course is proceeding and the way in which it is affecting their progress.

Since the environment does influence learning (Chastain, 10; Gallup, 17; Leonard, 30; Spady, 50), one part of goal-setting is the development of an appropriate environment. What does this task mean for the teacher? There are obvious physical components the teacher can easily manage within the confines of the classroom walls. Background music, visuals (e.g., posters, road signs, cheerful sayings in large print, and overhead projector material (Joiner, 25), colors, humor, plants that students water and talk about, action, and space are but some of the exterior factors to be mentioned. Other less tangible factors may easily escape notice. These factors are found in the inner environment.

It is a basic assumption that a necessary precondition to the creation of a rich classroom environment is the teacher's awareness that the learner's environment is crucial to his or her well-being and learning. Is there a "soft" place in the classroom for relaxation with pillows and plants; or are there other accouterments to create a sense of "softness"? Is there a "bright and energetic" side to the classroom that promotes the completion of certain individualized language projects? Another basic assumption is that both affective and cognitive (Chastain, 10; Christensen, 12, 13; Galyean, 21; Mouly, 37; Wittmer and Myricle, 52) dimensions of the learner's being enter into an effective environment. The teacher's constant awareness of these dimensions is crucial to the making of appropriate decisions in the classroom. Teaching is a decision-making process at every juncture: "Shall I continue this activity or shall I stop here? Shall we now listen to the music I have programed or shall we start the other practice drill?" To decide on an appropriate direction in which to proceed, the teacher must have options; this presupposes that the teacher is flexible and is able to shift the lesson plan to adjust to unforeseen aspects of the environment. For the purpose of discussion, the creation of a pleasant environment will depend on the decisions by the teacher about the management of props and activities that enhance the outer environment and nourish the inner environment.

The importance of creating an enriched environment is to forestall the depletion of pupils' energy and the teacher's resources, to prevent the feeling of "sameness" from prevailing at all times, to avoid the ambiance from seeming gray, to block any feeling on the part of students that they want to avoid class. An enriched environment may help learners to feel the liveliness, excitement, enthusiasm, and fun of a stimulating experience.

One must emphasize that significant changes in human behavior, including the desired change toward second language use, rarely occur without stimulating experiences. Change in behavior in regard to other humans, the interpersonal dimension—for presumably this is where language use seems most crucial—almost invariably calls for an affective experience. Practical experience demonstrates that classroom use of activities whose primary focus is the learners' affective domain does enrich the environment (Christensen, 13; Kalivoda, 29).

The teacher

Keeping in mind both affective and cognitive factors, the teacher may be compared to an orchestra conductor, whose task is to marshal the students' coordinated efforts and unleash the potential of the total setting to stimulate their willingness to become involved in the language learning process.

The conductor's linear movements set in motion many simultaneous activities through which the musicians attain their personal and professional goals. Similarly, teaching is a linear process; learning is not. The teacher can only utter one word at a time in sequence or move forward in the lesson one step at a time. The learner, on the other hand, may absorb and process information from the outer environment through several senses simultaneously. The outer environment is able to interface with the inner environment as the many components of the target language and culture are internalized. The teacher may draw on both the cognitive and the affective to create stimulating language practice and a positive attitude among learners.

Here "attitude" refers to the incorporation of several desirable traits (Birckbichler, 3; Simon and Clarke, 48; Simon et al., 49): creativity, imagination, trust, humor, acceptance of the student as a creative person (no matter how miniscule his or her creative ability may be). Attitude also refers to a willingness to be flexible in using the various physical properties of the classroom's outer environment and to provide good modeling for the students. The teacher, who needs to be flexible and assertive, must seek first to facilitate an atmosphere of good will and learner self-esteem, and second, to keep in touch with the pupils, learn what excites them and harness those things that promote stimulating language practice. Fusing the best the teacher has to offer with the interests of the learners can only be accomplished in an appropriate atmosphere.

What does interest your students? Ask them! Find out what is contemporary for them. This does not mean you must exclude your own interests. It is not an "either/or" situation. The act of asking them helps establish trust in the classroom.

Supplementing textbook content with practice of a more personal nature adds a greater dimension of student interest. If a student is unable to express his or her feelings on Monday morning, you may suggest that he or she focus on one of the plants growing in your room. Ask the student to personify the plant and give feelings to it. Ask the student to state how the plant is: content or worried, timid or valiant, etc. Talking about positive aspects of their personalities, concerns, and ideas in warm-up activities may be the best management of the classroom environment at the moment.

Creating a classroom environment

Is your classroom atmosphere imaginative, gloomy, exciting, combative, friendly, rowdy, challenging, upbeat, discouraging to you or to your students? Whatever the answer, improvement is possible. Many components within the four walls of your classroom exist, just waiting to be set in motion to motivate learners' interest in language practice. An important question for teachers to ask themselves, is: Are learners in the classroom to serve at the pleasure of the teacher, or is the teacher there to promote an imaginative environment that is conducive to a creative and flexible program?

One way to facilitate the release of learners' imagination is to distort the ordinary view of reality. Distortions of reality often cause humor. Stand-up comedians create humor through exaggeration and distortion. Alan King, for example, used to do a number in which he talked about "the friendly skies of United" (i.e., United Airlines). It was obvious, he said, that the skies were friendly to United, since it had hired the *Luftwaffe* to shoot down the competition. Norm Crosby's use of malapropisms is another view of successful use of the distortion of reality: "A word to the wise is deficient."

Distortion of the ordinary view of reality keeps learners' attention to "what's coming next." An easy way for teachers to distort reality is by the personification of inanimate things. Personify the classroom itself. Give it character: "*Pobre Sala de Clase! ¿Qué podemos hacer para alegrarte?*" (Poor Classroom! What can we do to make you glad?). The use of similes is another possibility: "This class is like . . . " Another example may be to react to the dialogue characters. They are part of the psychological environment. You may distort the ordinary way in which students view the dialogue characters. Suppose one of the dialogue characters is named Madame Ghilbert. You could then use an open-ended sentence in the target language: "*Je pense que Madame Ghilbert est une espionne internationale et elle* . . . "

What kind of mood can you create in your classroom? What have you done to provoke the kind of environment that releases student interest toward practice? Do you turn the otherwise neutral content of traditional practice drills into contemporary content that students sense as an upbeat feature of the classroom, because it ties into their personal lives? We all use pattern drills to practice how to say, "I'm *X* years old." But why not ask how old James is? *James at Sixteen*, a T.V. program, relates directly to the issues and interests of high school learners. What about T.V. programs for college students, *Soap*, for example? Ask students what it is. Who are the people in it? Students could divide into small groups, assume the different characters in *Soap* and create a mini-dialogue of one line per student. A brief and judicious use of *Soap* might help clean up the environment.

A simple premise that is central to the issue of creating a stimulating classroom environment is: Most individuals, teachers and students alike, are satisfied with what they do and even seek to do more when given positive reinforcement for their efforts. Said differently, good strokes are nourishing; bad strokes are toxic (Greenwald, 23). A dull lesson is toxic to students, and produces negative feedback that the teacher can sense. Conversely, a nourishing environment promotes satisfaction and desire to do more.

Discipline and its environment

Some teachers complain, however, that they have to spend most of their time disciplining their pupils. Precious class time is spent in whistle blowing and yelling at kids to "knock it off"—an obviously toxic environment. (A firm teacher, however, is desirable, and a solid statement to the pupils to settle down is necessary at appropriate times). After so much of this toxicity, some teachers burn out; their resources become depleted (Conheim, 15; Maslach, 32). The conditions that breed toxicity do not always exist, nor do they have to continue. For example, within the same school where problem classes exist, other classes progress on schedule with all objectives met. What accounts for the difference? Another example: pupils who have always enjoyed school and have never experienced a problem class eventually recognize that in one particular class they now sense depression, resentment, or some other negative feeling. Why?

The Humanistic movement and foreign language teaching

The human-growth potential movement has recently had a concrete effect on education all across the country (Galyean, 21). As a result, more and more teachers are enrolling in professional workshops in humanistic approaches to teaching. Textbooks are reflecting humanistic approaches. In college bookstores we now see such titles as *The Joy of Chemistry* (Cherim and Kallam, 11), and Pirsig's (42) *Zen and the Art of Motorcycle Maintenance*, which, incidentally, is a very serious text currently used in college philosophy courses.

The authors of *The Joy of Chemistry* state that their book title is not meant to be tongue-in-cheek, sensational, or cute. Their conception has nothing to do with the "la-de-dah tripping-through-the daisies" vision of the Romantic. Their approach is an attempt to teach attitudes and techniques that can lead to joy in a human experience. They believe that the mastery of problem-solving techniques, the understanding of basic physical concepts, and an appreciation for the rich historical aspects of chemistry can generate a joyful attitude. They believe the student who acquires those techniques and an accompanying understanding will close the book at the end of the course not only with joy at its conclusion but also with much satisfaction and a feeling of personal accomplishment.

In the frontpiece to his contemporary contribution to humanistic education, Pirsig (42) states that "The real cycle you're working on is a cycle called 'yourself.' The study of the art of motorcycle maintenance is really a miniature study of the art of rationality itself. Working on a motorcycle, working well, *caring* (italics mine), is to become part of a process, to achieve an inner peace of mind. The motorcycle is primarily a mental phenomenon."

Perhaps someone should write a methods book entitled *Zen and the Art of Language Teaching.* The term "Zen" is used figuratively to denote the important nuances in different, yet successful teaching styles. The phenomenon of success does not correspond neatly to years of teaching experience. Nor is it directly related to any particular methodology. Gallwey's (18) book, *The Inner Game of Tennis,* may help to point out how Zen might apply to language teaching.

> ". . . neither mastery nor satisfaction can be found in the playing of any game without giving some attention to the relatively neglected skills of the inner game. This is the game that takes place in the mind of the player, and it is played to overcome all habits of mind which inhibit excellence in performance. . . . I too was guilty of overteaching, but one day when I was in a relaxed mood, I began saying less and noticing more. Errors that I saw but didn't mention were correcting themselves without the students ever knowing I had made them. How were the changes happening? Though I found this interesting, it was a little hard on my ego, which didn't quite see how it was going to get its due credit for the improvements being made. It was an even greater blow when I realized that sometimes verbal instruction to a conscientious student seemed to *decrease* the probability of the desired correction occurring. . . . I was beginning to learn what all good pros and students must learn: that images are better than words, showing better than telling, too much instruction worse than none, and that conscious effort often produces negative results. One question perplexed me: What's wrong with trying? What does it mean to try *too* hard?" (pp. 13–19).

Balancing form and freedom

This Zen-like quality has an implicit dimension (Pascale, 41). It is distinct from the other, better-known, explicit dimension of teaching traditionally studied in schools of education; it is as distinct from the other as time is from the other three dimensions of physical space. In trying to explain the implicit dimension, let us look at what has happened in institutions of higher education. Researchers have regularly called for larger doses of rationality, specificity, and calculated decisiveness in lesson planning and performance objectives. One gets the feeling that a combination of objectivity and specificity, in short, prescribed, set form, is the paragon of the classroom.

Indeed, there are many situations in which being explicit and decisive is not only desirable but necessary. Language teaching, however, is as much an art as it is a science. There is considerable advantage in having a dual frame of reference: recognizing the value of a set and clear delineation, and also allowing for enough flexibility to mold something spontaneously new and free of set form.

The interim step may reflect a certain degree of ambivalence toward getting "all the work done on schedule." Frequent change in activities may be desirable. The unknown information involved in certain activities will eventually take on meaningful shape in the learner's mind, and in the meantime the change has provided relief. In certain situations the flexible flow in the unfolding of a class period may be better than a determined attempt at achieving absolute clarity and forcing preestablished form (i.e., grammar information and district guidelines set for each week). When a teacher has too much data for human processing, or she needs to simplify or leave certain concepts for learners to deal with in their inner-environment.

In item 3 of the Preference-Ranking activity in *Explorando* (Christensen, 14), for example, students often ask the teacher to define or specify (not translate) exactly what is meant by the term *discreto* (discrete) in reference to a simple discussion of the main idea, *amor.* Experience shows that when the teacher chooses not to define the term for the pupils, thereby rendering the concept a bit ambiguous (or mysterious?), more learner interest seems to be directed toward the activity. There is no point in students quibbling with the teacher about definitions when the learner is left to reason out a definition in his inner environment.

There is another kind of problem involved in an attempt to employ too much specificity. For example, in Spanish learners often become confused by an explanation of the change from the pronoun *le* to the pronoun *se* before another object pronoun whose initial letter is *l-* (*lo, la, los, las*). Frequently, the process of rationally explaining a point of grammar provokes frustration, thus arousing (negative) feelings. Under these circumstances the notion of ambivalence to getting "all the work done now" is useful. Rather than grasping for a quick solution or explanation, the teacher may take the flexible interim step of "deciding" how to proceed. The process of "proceeding" in turn generates further information by moving toward the goal through a sequence of small steps rather than bold-stroke actions (i.e., "I'll explain the whole ball of wax now so learning will be easier through the up coming exercises.") The distinction is between giving too much data and having enough data to proceed. This Zen-like approach to language teaching would suggest that one not try too hard to reflect, deliberate, and conceptualize the task at hand. D. T. Suzuki in ***Zen in the Art of Archery*** (Gallwey, 18) states, "Man is a thinking reed but his great works are done when he is not calculating and thinking. Childlikeness has to be restored . . . in self-forgetfulness" (p. 51).

Teacher and space

Sheer cognitive explanation may be too much data for the inner-environment. This kind of bold-stroke explanation reflects an attempt at "trying too hard." Recognition of this problem may generate the decision to turn to the space of the classroom. The use of space may aid in the attainment of full understanding far better than a specific explanation. For example, three students may be asked to stand before the class. One student on the left (as seen by the others from their seats) is labeled with the pronoun *le.* To his right, a second pupil is labeled a *lo* or a *la.* The teacher may then ask what he or she is, to which other students would respond "He is a *le* or she is a *la.*" Once the position and names of pronouns have been practiced, the person labeled *le* is replaced by the third person, who is labeled *se.* If necessary, move on to other drills to practice the grammar point. Next, play a song in which the sequence *se lo (la, los, las)* occurs. Have learners sing it. The next day the same concept may be displayed by asking a person to label three chairs *le, lo,* and *se.* The pupil is asked to put *le* next to *lo.* The teacher asks what this or that chair is, to which learners respond with *le* or *lo.* Under such a grammatically impossible structure, chair *le* is replaced by chair *se.* Space is thus used to enhance the learners' perception of the positioning of certain syntactical elements in Spanish.

Let us look at another example of the use of space. If you are fortunate, one of the four walls in your classroom contains a bank of windows to let in a view of outside. Or, seen from another angle, the windows let the classroom ambience out to the other side of the classroom wall. There are, however, three other walls which either prevent the outside from coming in or allowing the inside to go out. One way to facilitate a richness in this otherwise confining atmosphere is to create paper murals and hang them on those windowless walls. Each day the students take some time to draw parts of an "outside world" on the paper murals. During the process of being active and out of their seats, learners activate such useful target vocabulary as *draw, paint, trees, sky, mountains, view, outside, we people in here,* and *those others out there,* etc. As they draw themselves and the teacher draws himself or herself, a continual interaction takes place among all individuals.

The walls psychologically may represent a confinement or conflict. If space is taught to be a value, learners begin to appreciate the efforts of the teacher in enhancing positive values for the benefit of the learner. If the teacher invites students to do battle against the conflicting element, i.e., the confinement (the restriction of the outside world from entering into the classroom), then the united efforts of learners and teacher, a partnership of constructive action, may carry over into the activity of language practice.

The activity presented here is an example of a concerted effort by the teacher to involve learners in changing the atmosphere and establishing an enriched environment for their future learning conditions. The example merely highlights what may be possible. Beyond the example, one may glimpse a more notable feature of this activity: the union of learner and teacher in establishing a united front in approaching a problem or achieving an ideal objective. The togetherness (no cliché here) is to be valued as a positive feature in the creation of yet another aspect of a stimulating environment.

Teacher as artist

The teacher as creator of an enriched environment works as an artist, allowing his "creative juices to flow." Experienced artists know they cannot impose will on the creative process; they must let it lead them. Picasso talked about the absence of planning, an attitude of exploring without *trying* to reach a specific goal. "When I paint, my objective is to show what I found, not what I was looking for." Artists who are having trouble with their work are asked to paint to music (Block, 4; Bruner, 6; Bushman, 7; Lozonov, 31), for creativity is an interplay between the person and the matter at hand, a special quality of connection and communication (Birckbichler, 3). However, in teaching, one cannot or should not forget to plan. On the other hand, "flowing" with the spontaneity of the moment also has its utility (Thompson, 51). Extend what you do to far off ends.

For example, tape record live environments in the foreign country or in another, advanced class. Make recordings of radio broadcasts, TV programs. Tape jokes and play them in class for brief spans of time. Where a dialogue contains information about travel, the airport, or airplanes, conduct a paper airplane activity. Have your students invent names for their airplanes (*El Condor de Lima* or *L'Esprit de Paris*). Ask simple questions: How far will they fly? How high can they fly? Have a contest to see. Allow them to make decisions. Create an atmosphere in which they may employ their imagination. Give them an open-ended sentence in the target language: "My airplane is going to . . . " or "I'm going to fly my plane to . . ." Seize upon any possibility to involve students in a spontaneously creative situation to make the environment more affable for language practice. Often such spontaneous activities will require more "showing how to" and less talk by the teacher. Young people (older ones too!) do enjoy spontaneity being themselves, and being creative.

Survival techniques

Perhaps the one component of life that exceeds all others in importance is that of survival. People, including students, no matter what their age may be, are more interested in their well-being than almost any other subject matter (including the traditional content of foreign language textbooks!).

Language practice whose content deals with survival, both physically and mentally, is stimulating. No one really cares that María ate fish soup yesterday, even though she may have done so in the text dialogue. It is more interesting to learn, however, that María saw a fly in her soup or that the soup was poisoned and she later died. We do identify with those events.

Talk about the "good and bad" of something, the "right or wrong." The popularity of the movie *Star Wars* proves that people are still fascinated by basic concepts of good and evil. Conversation based on these opposing concepts is interesting, because students measure what others say against their own values, against what is already stored in their memories from previous learning.

Student memory may play a beneficial, or even a crucial part in stimulating the inner environment. The past impacts significantly on the present. What can the teacher do to facilitate this impact? Teachers may aid learners to move from a memory of the past and bring it to focus on the present. That is, a learner's statement of what happened in the past, serious or humorous, momentous or trivial, helps create an interesting mood for the present moment. One teacher (Pallamari, 39) uses a concept of "Life History" to impact the past on the present.

Be different sometimes. Stimulate interest with food. For example, bring a box of jelly beans or a sack of peanuts in shells to count and later to eat. Ask questions: "How many peanuts do you have? How many have you eaten?" The following description is a simple (and inexpensive) way of using food in the classroom: "Apples and the Direct Object Pronoun."

To introduce the direct object pronoun, bring a sack of apples. Hide them somehow behind your desk or lecturn. Take out one, and as you show it to the students, say in the target language: "An apple. I have an apple. Repeat! You have an apple." The class then repeats, "You have an apple." The teacher, then, says, "I have it. Repeat! I have it." The class repeats the sentence. Then ask, "Who has it?" The teacher answers his own question, "I have it." The teacher then gives the apple to a student and asks, "Who has it now?" to which an answer is given. This process continues until all students have an apple, and all have practiced the direct object pronoun several times. A student may get two apples. The question in the plural would then be, "Who has them?" Cut an apple in two halves. Take out the seeds. Count them. Give them away.

Experience has shown that excitement is generated as the teacher continues to pull apples, one by one, from their hiding place (shades of the old magician and magic hat trick!). The excitement suggests that "good things are happening to me in this class." The environment is thus modified by food, and learners find that practicing the direct object pronoun in this fashion is indeed a stimulating way to supplement pattern drills.

Other ways to use simple foods include the preparation of easy-to-make dips for chips or an explanation by students of how the "white stuff" got between the Oreo cookies. Follow-up: eat them!

Problem-solving and the creative process

Anyone looking for answers to problems is engaged in creative work (Birckbichler, 3). Creativity occurs when there is successful communication between the teacher and his work. It is an information-processing sequence: something is *perceived*, *elaborated*, *expressed* and *evaluated* (Bruner, 6). In the perception stage, the teacher gathers information about him or herself and the classroom environment. In the elaboration stage, he or she begins to manage the space and objects within the four walls of the classroom. In the expression stage, the teacher interprets his or her role as facilitator and instructor and views the students as people who have a potentially infinite amount of ideas to express. Finally, in the evaluation stage, the teacher assesses what the learners have expressed in terms of how effectively the first three stages were deployed.

Of the four stages of the creative process, perception may be the most critical in both generating and blocking the flow of communication. Both teacher and students are part of the environment. Ecologically, they should be mutually beneficial. Without keen perception of the environment, a teacher may say, "A class is not going to control me; I have to control it." This is one way to perceive the relationship between teaching and learners, but it is difficult to see how any teacher can derive lasting fulfillment from a relationship thought of as a constant struggle for control. The high value we place on conscious effort can block creativity by trying to force work before we are ready to do it. In an "artistic" attempt to create a mutually beneficial atmosphere, the teacher must not try to force students. Perceiving their needs first and moving from there will aid in the creative process of nourishing the environment.

The Students

The students are the central part of the environment. Getting to know your environment means getting to know your individual students. What are their interests? Let students fill out a card on themselves, and use this information to highlight their part of the environment.

As teacher and learners work together, they are influenced by the environment and by what has transpired to that point, as they perceive and react to the previous exercise or activity. The learners react to the teacher's mannerisms (Papalia and Zampogna, 40), and the teacher to the learners' willingness to try or to perform to their ability (Carney, 9). In our zeal as teachers, we often resent students who do not understand that we have invested much time and energy in devising a lesson plan. And we may feel that they have no right to thwart our best efforts to provide them with what we "know" is a good lesson.

It is important to remember that there is a significant difference between our ages and those of our learners. Their perception (right or wrong) of what they need often is different from our own. An individual "owns" a perception. A teacher who denies a pupil his or her perception misses a chance to enrich an environment that is conducive to promoting learner motivation.

By now, one may wonder how that superstar teacher is able to manage so many inner and outer environments. Perhaps the key to success in environment management is to look to the learner's self-esteem (Anderson, 1; Branden, 5; Canfield, 8). But the teacher might say "I'm no psychologist! Where do I start in my attempt to nourish pupils' self-esteem?" No teacher can expect that all pupils in a class are total self-affirmers. Often, whether we are aware of it or not, there are individuals in our classes who have self-esteem missing in their lives. These people are also part of the environment. The way in which they feel directly affects how they behave in class or how they relate to other parts of the environment. To increase a student's self-esteem, the environment may be manged to focus attention on aspects the student feels good about. Just talking about past experiences, things he or she knows about, will aid in coping better in the class.

Levels of communication

It is said that people need to love and be loved, to be stroked, that people have a need to relate on a deeper level than mere superficial communication. Powell, (43) in his intriguing monograph entitled *Why Am I Afraid To Tell You Who I Am?*, presents the concept of interpersonal encounter and five levels of communication. One may think of these levels as concentric circles. The outer circle represents the most superficial form of conversation, talking in clichés. At this lowest level there is no important communication at all, unless by accident. On this level people express such notions as: "How are you?" "How is your brother?" "Where have you been?" We say things such as: "I like your dress" or "It's good to see you." There is no real sharing of personally important information or opinions. Everyone remains safe within the circle of clichés. There are no positive strokes.

The next level, the second circle, represents the reporting of facts to others. At this level people do not step very far outside themselves into sharing personal information. No self-revelation is made about these facts, they are simply reported. Often the content of this level contains gossip items, short narrations about others, or information about the weather. Here a person gives nothing of himself and invites nothing from others in return.

Level Three is the expression of an individual's ideas and judgments. On this level there is some communication about the person. The individual

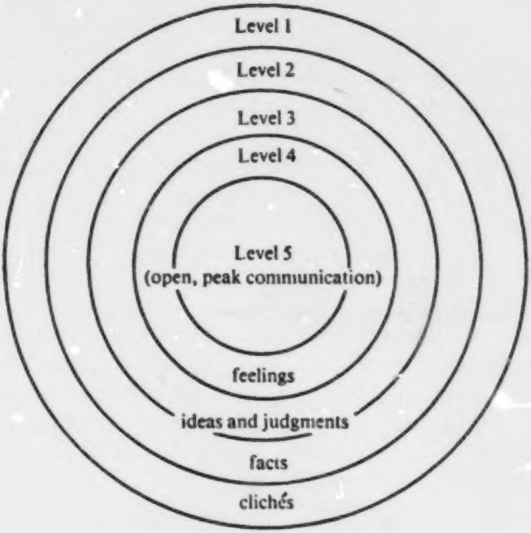

Fig. 1 Levels of communication

takes the risk of sharing some of his ideas with another and revealing some of his judgments and decisions. There is at this level, however, some censorship. As the speaker expresses ideas, he will be watching the listener carefully to be sure the listener will be accepting and receptive to what is shared. If the listener raises his eyebrows or narrows his eyes, if he yawns or looks at his watch, the speaker, who at this third level is taking a risk, will probably retreat to safer ground. Communication will stop, or the subject will be changed. The speaker will start to say things he suspects the listener wants to hear so as to please the other person.

The fourth inner circle, Level Four, is where feelings and "gut level" emotions are expressed. The qualities that clearly differentiate the speaker from all others are his feelings and emotions. Communication of such affective information makes him unique. Ideas lie at the surface of real communication; feelings reside underneath. Many people can hold an idea in common. How an individual feels about that idea makes him unique.

Level Five, the innermost circle, is peak communication. All deep and authentic friendships must be based on openness and honest communication. This is where deep personal and emotional expression are bound together in some empathic form. The persons involved in communication at this level are like members of an orchestra who are playing together harmoniously (Maslow, 34).

Raising the classroom level of communication

Some students have never been on a higher level than Level Two. They have never shared emotions with anyone; they suffer from a lack of self-esteem, self-worth. No one has really been interested in them enough to accept their ideas and the emotions that underlie them. Many families are so busy that they seldom communicate on a level higher than Level Two. This may also be the case of what happens in the classroom. The environment may be such that nothing more than clichés and the reporting of sterile facts happens. Who cares about the students? Who cares about the teacher? A rich environment, both outer and inner environments, may help to bridge the way to more exciting communication. How does the teacher really feel about what happened to him or her last weekend? A brief and enthusiastic description of the teacher's great weekend (of course, in the target language) may prove to be extremely interesting to the learners. An invitation to share their personal opinions, imaginings, fantasies, feelings, interests, desires, and personal experiences may, in fact, stimulate more language practice.

Students who have few hang ups and feel comfortable with themselves, those who have a good self-image, seem to "flow" with the teacher's lesson plan and mannerisms. Learners who have low self-esteem seem to create disturbances, make snide remarks, pick up and react negatively to almost anything the teacher does. A teacher who struggles against a student with a chip-on-the-shoulder attitude adds to the deterioration of the classroom atmosphere which makes it difficult for the other students to learn.

To answer the question of where the teacher starts in hopes of nourishing pupils' self-esteem, let us begin with how to set the environment on the first day. One successful approach lies in being clear with students about what is expected of them. There is a popular rock song whose choral line is "Taking care of business." The business at hand at the beginning of the school term is to clarify to the students what the teacher wants and expects the students to achieve in the course and *how* it may be possible for them to attain the desired goals. Where teachers provide students with a rationale for certain activities, there is an implied message: "I'm interested in your progress. I'm interested in seeing how far you can take yourself in this venture." Since language study falls into the general category of the humanities, we may assume that language teachers already lean toward being "humanistic." The aims of the humanistic educator are set in terms of two major goals: the learner's language progress and a healthy degree of self-esteem.

Many students come into the language classroom for the first time with little concept of what will be required to make steady progress. All to often pupils become impatient in their attempt at learning the target language and this leads to frustration. They find they cannot easily master the language. Part of creating an effective environment is to make clear to students that this language-learning venture requires an investment of time and energy.

Ask students what they want to *do* with the language. Ask also what they imagine they *could do* with it once it is learned. Then ask what they are *willing to do* realistically to attain mastery. Compare language study to the study of music. On the first day ask the class how many of them play a musical instrument. How much practice did it take to achieve their degree of mastery over that instrument? Draw the parallel that learning to play a piano and learning to use a second language are both skill-oriented propositions. A certain knowledge of facts is required: the meaning of musical notes or the position of object pronouns, but the crux of the matter is that daily practice is required in both areas.

To achieve desired goals, the teacher and learners are partners in this investment venture. This partnership must be based on open and frank communication between both parties. Sensitivities to each other's needs must be developed; individual differences must be respected. Generally, people drift away (physically or mentally) from unpleasant or toxic environment and gravitate toward pleasant, nourishing ones. The environment must be safe; it must be comfortable to make errors and not feel "dumb." A teacher's tendency to scoff or make snide remarks will probably prevent any trust from developing with the students. Is your classroom like a prison or a vacation cottage? The creation of an environment of acceptance, warmth, safety from the possibility of damaging one's feeling of self-worth, freedom to make errors and express one-self is a challenge to the creative teacher.

To help pupils strengthen their self-image, the teacher must consider pupil expectations and needs. Individual learners have expectations toward what they may accomplish in a language class. They hope that someday they may be relatively fluent. Each time the pupil masters some point, the teacher must recognize that that mastery represents one pebble in the student's language bucket. At the middle and high school levels a bucket and supply of pebbles may be useful as an overt indicator of steady progress. Steady progress helps strengthen one's self-image.

Public recognition of achievement, however small, is necessary to keep the learner moving forward. We are all acquainted with standard forms of verbal recognition (e.g., "Very good," "Great," "Nice try," etc.). In addition to these positive reinforcers, however, self-image seems to be strengthened when public recognition comes in the form of "BLTs", "bright lights and trumpets" (Pascale, 41), and a *¡Ta-dah!* is on the way to the creation of a healthy environment.

In his book, *The Social Contract*, Robert Ardrey (2) points out some similarities between humans and other animals. Whether or not one agrees with Ardrey's conclusion about *homo sapiens*—an irrelevant issue to the topic at hand—an inescapable notion is the ground broken in his research on needs that humans share with other higher animals. The first is security, the second is stimulation, and the third is identity. Achievement of security releases the individual from anxiety. Stimulation is sought to overcome the depressing state of boredom. Affirmation of one's individuality nourishes the person's identity and thus decreases anonymity. Ardrey calls these three needs—identity, stimulation, and security—the dynamic triad. One of his conclusions is that increasing affluence decreases economic anxiety, and this condition results in a bored society. A bored society, in turn, seeks to overturn this state through some kind of stimulation. Some ways people have been stimulating themselves is through strident music, pornography, strobe lights, violence, and adventure.

How are these human needs achieved in your class? Do you perceive emotional undernourishment? Is there another way in which you may be able to fulfill your needs and those of your students? What do you do to promote a more stimulating, nourishing environment? One answer to these questions may be found in the use of Affective Learning Activities (ALA). ALA models have been demonstrated to be effective in promoting interest in learner participation in language practice. Two ALA models have been described elsewhere (Christensen, 12, 13). The following is a description of the design of another ALA model and how it may be implemented in the foreign language classroom.

The interview model

The interview creates a different atmosphere in that the teacher is no longer in a unilateral position in reference to the pupils. The interview calls for students to pair off to interview each other; they are one-on-one, an interviewer and an interviewee. The model itself has three major components: 1) a column of questions (usually about five or six) that are asked orally; 2) a column of lead-in phrases with which the interviewee frames his verbal responses; 3) another column of lead-in phrases the interviewer uses to write down the short answers he or she is given. The interviewer is directly involved with the first and third columns; the interviewee with the second. For example:

GRAMMAR FOCUS: Adjectives

Student A	*Student B*	*Student A*
1. What's your name?	My name is ...	His/Her name is__
2. Do you prefer American cars or foreign cars?	I prefer ...	He/She prefers__
3. Do you prefer loud, fast music or slow, soft music?	I prefer ...	He/She prefers__

4. Are you more serious or more carefree?	I'm more . . .	He's/She's more__
5. Do you have a hard bed or a soft bed?	I have a . . .	He/She has a__
6. Do you prefer one close friend or several acquaintances?	I prefer . . .	He/She prefers

The teacher selects or devises an interview form with structures currently being studied in the textbook. While the example above focuses on adjectives, the teacher should have a large collection of interview forms, each stressing a different language structure.

If an interview is available for the major grammar points to be covered during the year, students may be given the opportunity to do an interview once a week. Incidentally, the interview experience allows students ample practice in asking a variety of questions. So often we see the teacher asking all the questions. The interview form may already be prepared on paper for students' use, or it may be written on the chalkboard. The latter option provides the added practice of writing, since learners copy column three in their notebooks so that they can record the interviewee's answers.

Implementation

The interview takes place in two phases. Phase 1 consists of the interview itself. Students pair off; student A interviews student B, then B interviews A. Phase 2 takes place when the teacher begins asking questions that are answered from information in column 3.

Phase 1. The interview may conventionally begin with the same question? "What's your name?" This question is easy and constant, and is used to "break the ice" for the interview conversation. Each time an interview takes place, students are encouraged to work with someone in class whom they have not yet interviewed. This humanistic approach allows for personal contact with other people whom a particular student might not otherwise have or take the opportunity to meet. It may even provide an avenue for a timid person to overcome shyness by meeting and talking with someone new. The model allows people to widen their circle of contacts and possibly add a bit of social stature to their lives.

For beginning and intermediate levels of language learning, most questions in column 1 are of the forced-choice type (i.e., "Is it this or that?") The answer the interviewee gives corresponds to one of the two choices. It is a selection based on the pupil's values, opinion, beliefs, imagination, or personal experience. It is bent toward the student's affective realm. For example, in question number 2, the student chooses between the choices: American cars or foreign cars. The selection may be based on personal experiences (e.g., the family owns a foreign car) or on values (e.g., the learner likes the economy of small foreign cars). Almost any two adjectives could be used, big cars/compact cars, light cars/heavy cars, etc.—for this linguistic focus.

The interviewee, student B, answers, "I prefer . . . " and makes his selection. The three suspension dots in column 2 refer to an oral response. In column 3 the interviewer writes in the answer on the solid blank line. In column 3, then, item 2 would be answered *He* (or *She*) *prefers American cars* or *He* (or *She*) *prefers foreign cars.* Notice what happens in a sequence of interviewer-interviewee-interviewer, a sequence that takes place in approximately five to ten seconds: "Do you prefer . . . ?"—"I prefer . . . "—"He/She prefers . . . " The pair of students practice the sequence of second person—first person—third person in a very natural setting.

The questions should be written in such a way as to render the interview more interesting. Questions may be humorous (e.g., "Do you normally eat the donut or its hole?") or serious (e.g., "Right now, are you content or irritated?"), based on fantasy (e.g., "Do you prefer to eat dancing mushrooms or singing carrots?"), or based on reality (e.g., "Do you prefer to eat peanuts or candy?").

Practical experience has demonstrated that about five or six questions are sufficient to extend the two-phase interview activity to approximately ten or fifteen minutes. In reality, the two phases, which are very different, make the total activity seem like two distinct activities, each one about eight minutes long. Students can experience a successful and linguistically fulfilling activity with just a few questions, for choosing between the two options is not difficult.

In designing their own interview forms, teachers must be cautious about not overloading the questions with too much data or making them too long. Short, interesting questions are more desirable. Interest is built in by attending to the affective domain, i.e., by focusing on the individual and his or her personal interests, values, opinions, and experiences. For example, "In your dreams do you see strange things or common things?" Students like to ponder uncommon, exotic, unexpected aspects of their lives, even when they are expressed in generalities. That is, it is not necessary to explicate what is entailed in the phrase "strange things." The phrase itself will conjure up in the learner's mind a real example from a dream they have had.

To this point we have only discussed the forced-choice type of question. For intermediate to more advance learners, information-type questions are appropriate. Students may be expected to answer who-what-where-when type questions, using vocabulary they have learned. Beginning students may not be sufficiently sophisticated in the language to respond to such questions. For example, "What do you often see in your dreams?" is an interesting question for more advanced students, but the forced-choice question "In your dreams do you often see monsters or friends?" may be more appropriate for intermediate students.

In designing interview questions, the teacher may "seed" them with one or two items that cause students to answer by looking around the classroom, e.g., "On what side of the room is the pencil sharpener, the north side or the south side?" or "What new thing is hanging on the bulletin board today?" or "What strange thing is on the teacher's desk?" Furthermore, during the transition from the level of beginning students to more advanced students, the full set of five or six questions may include some forced-choice questions and some general information type questions. Interview forms might be designed that contain questions submitted by four or five different pupils. However, the first question is always constant ("What's your name?").

Phase 2. During Phase 1, students pair off as student A writes student B's answers in the third column of the interview form. Column 3 is essential to the implementation of Phase 2 of the format. After the pairs of students have interviewed each other—five to eight minutes—the teacher reassembles them in a whole-class group to begin Phase 2.

Phase 2 entails asking some of the students a few questions they wrote down in column 3. Every student will have a set of answers (a mini-lesson) for one other student in the class. The teacher begins by asking "X, what is the name of the person you interviewed?" (At the beginning level, the sense of this question is taught as one whole unit of meaning, in the same sense that a student would learn the meaning of "How do you do?"). From the information for item 1 in the third column, the student would respond with "His (or Her) name is Y." Then the teacher might ask the same question to the whole class: "Class, what is the name of the person that X interviewed?," to which the class would respond, "His (or Her) name is Y." Hearing the whole class say his name in union is like getting a form of "Ta-dah," a smile-provoking experience.

Following is a sample sequence of teacher questions and student responses. Note the flexibility the teacher has in moving back and forth from the primary student addressed to other students and to the whole class for the purpose of repeating and affirming what the primary student said.

Teacher: X, what is the name of the person you interviewed?
X: His name is Y.
Teacher: What kind of cars does he prefer?
X: He prefers American cars.
Teacher: Z, what did X say?
Z: X said that Y prefers American cars.
Teacher: X, does Y prefer loud, fast music or slow, soft music?
X: Y prefers loud, fast music.
Teacher: X, what about you?
X: I prefer loud, fast music also.

During Phase 2 one should not attempt to ask a full set of questions to all members of the class. There are too many students and that would entail too much time. For optimal results, Phase 2 should last about eight minutes. This means the teacher will limit the questioning to about three or four primary students. The full amount of time will be used as a few students answer and the teacher has other individuals and the whole class to repeat and affirm those responses.

Interestingly, practical experience shows that students like to pair off to use the language in this medium. It gets the teacher "off their backs" for a few minutes. They feel more relaxed in the one-on-one setting. And, if the questions have been well designed, the teacher may expect to see a great deal of enthusiasm among students as they work. In the design of interview questions, major attention ought to be given to the principal grammar point involved. If, for example, the focus point is on the *verb*, then the rest of the sentence should be relatively easy for the students to handle. At the same time, however, for the questions to have student appeal, their content should lean toward the affective domain.

Questions may reflect the principle of recycling. If in yesterday's class the teacher used an open-ended sentence to which students responded with a variety of adjectives, then in today's interview, many, or all, of those same adjectives could be used in the interview questions. This process recycles the information the students created. As students recognize that the teacher employs their ideas, they tend to develop greater trust in and respect for the teacher.

One final thought about the interview model. This model allows the teacher and the students to sense space in the classroom. Students can leave their chairs and move to another part of the room to interview someone new. As an option, the teacher may divide the class into two groups on opposite sides of the classroom. For example, the teacher could divide the learners on the basis of preferred beverages e.g., "All fruit juice drinkers go to this side of the room and all soft drink drinkers go to the other side." After the division, the teacher then tells students to find another person in their own group to interview. Dividing a class on the basis of preference toward Jack in the Box versus MacDonalds is more interesting than merely dividing the rows of desks down the middle of the classroom or counting off 1-2-1-2, etc.

Conclusion: A brief case study

The creation and management of an effective environment is not an abstraction or a mere hypothetical situation. It is possible to attain. What seems to be vital to this creation and management is an awareness of both the inner and outer properties of the environment and a willingness to treat students personably and with friendship—to value them humanistically.

Margi Chaimson of El Cajon Valley High School in El Cajon, California, has attained a high degree of quality environment in her classroom. In an informal interview she discussed some of her approaches.

First, she sees herself as being nonjudgmental and accepting of where the student is in his or her own life. Being in touch with her own high self-esteem, she is able to take risks. The risks are also easy since there is a high trust relationship in her classes. She makes the assumption that in her language classes there is a wide range of abilities and motivating forces among her students. Due to this disparity, she plans the main theme of what is to be taught on any given day, but she does not predetermine a precise mold of activities that all students will fall into and follow in lock step. Rather than adhering slavishly to one text, she draws on a vast collection of books and supplementary materials and activities to flesh out the language practice.

Her creativity lends itself to an effective environment. The vastness of her collection of supplementary activities allows her to vary the practice extensively. She believes in going down one road and, if some pupils fail to understand, turning around and trying another road. She does not believe that, because it is the third week, she has to be in the third lesson. The textbook serves only as an organized guide or outline to follow during the year. She keeps practicing until learners do understand. For example, if the comparison structure is the topic she will present it in as many practical ways as possible, synthesizing and summarizing information from a variety of sources, putting it on ditto worksheets for learners to take home. Indeed, she prepares so many different dittoes that her pupils have a thick notebook of supplementary practice material at the end of the year. Her approach seems to focus on variety. For example, she may present the structure of the comparison in a typical sentence, move on to a song in which the same structure exists, next a game in which that grammar point is used, a dictation with bizarre sentences using the comparison structure, an open-ended sentence in which the students use their own ideas and imagination. Then, she may finally end the practice with a summary of the grammar point.

Flexibility seems to be one of her major strengths as she works to create a stimulating environment. She organizes her day's lesson, but does not hold herself to her plan rigidly. She does not necessarily know which item will be used first until she steps into the class and determines the mood. Some days her students enjoy sitting and working at their seats; other days, because of the rain or football game, they do not want to sit still. She arranges the order of activities according to what she believes will be the most effective at that time.

Although she is flexible, she is very much in control of the classroom. She views herself as the leader. She guides the pupils in a certain direction and then allows the group to flow forward on its momentum. Then she either becomes a passenger with them on this practice trip or she stops the activity and moves on to another.

Margi Chaimson believes it is of utmost importance to inform her pupils about how she is feeling toward them. For example, if they are moving in a certain direction, and she becomes confused or exasperated with poor practice results, she is honest about her feelings and will inform the class. If they have gotten off the track, she will bring them back. In short, she believes that her state of mind is a general indicator of the learners' state. She recognizes that sometimes her directions, instructions, or explanations in the target language are not totally understood, so she will start again—but with a different and perhaps simpler and more deliberate style. She lets her students know that she allows herself to make mistakes. That knowledge, then, allows learners to feel more comfortable with their mistakes and consequently, to trust her even more. They enjoy following her lead. She continues to ask them if they understand; she holds her students' learning in high regard.

When asked what environment she tries to create in her language classes, she described it as being "warm and fuzzy." She explained that "warm and fuzzy" means that her door is always open. Her students tell her that in her room they find a "safe" environment. She shows personal interest in each student. She talks to them as equals and she invites them to share their ideas with her. She listens attentively. They communicate to her in their own way that she is "okay"—not perfect, but a good leader. She believes they have something they can give her, in the same sense that she has something to give them. Education is not a one-way road. When asked what the students give her, she responded with the word *smiles*, for her students make her feel validated as a person and as a teacher. Apparently she validates them as persons and as students. She does create an effective environment which enhances learner motivation to practice the language.

Even with all our present-day knowledge about the creation of an effective environment and with the many good examples of teachers around us who do create and manage such positive environments, we must increase our awareness of those influences that lie beyond the desk in the foreign language classroom.

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Stage 5

Teaching and learning: A key to success

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Introduction

Obviously, what happens in the classroom is the key to success. The finest and most extensive collection of materials, the most sophisticated equipment, and the most carefully planned curriculum are only adjuncts to the complex interactions between and among the teacher, the students, and the subject matter which ultimately result in success or failure.

Within the last ten years there have been truly revolutionary changes in our approach to the foreign language classroom. Innovations have been so numerous that many of us have been overwhelmed—sometimes grabbing at ideas from right and left, bewildering our students as well as ourselves, sometimes so confused by exhortations to change that we have drawn back into our shells and refused to move.

This chapter will concentrate on trying to bring order out of apparent chaos. After examining syllabuses for and approaches to foreign language teaching, pointing out recent developments in each, and stressing strategies which seem to have wide applicability, we will turn to the problem of choosing among the wide variety of options now available.

Because of the enormous amount of material which could be considered relevant to this topic, we have been obliged to choose. The constraints of reason suggest that emphasis here be placed upon the primary stages of language learning in the classroom setting, although consideration will be

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given to approaches at all levels, from the elementary school through the university. The constraints of time and space have confined the search of the literature primarily to the past year.

Before beginning, some definitions are in order. Fanselow (39) points out the fuzziness of our individual understandings of much of our professional vocabulary and suggests that, in addition to phonemes and morphemes, we need some "teachemes." For the purposes of this chapter, therefore, the following distinctions will be made: the *syllabus* refers to the subject matter content of a given course or series of courses and the order in which it is presented; the *approach* is, ideally, the theoretical basis or bases which determine the ways in which the syllabus is treated; a *strategy* or technique is an individual instructional activity as it occurs in the classroom.

There is a necessary relationship among these three facets of instruction and course objectives. It would be difficult, for example, to prepare students to function in a foreign setting by treating a literary syllabus with a grammar-translation approach and techniques based on the association of English and the target language. On the other hand, it is quite possible to meet highly "academic" objectives using a communicative approach to the grammatical syllabus and incorporating many humanistic strategies. The following divisions are, therefore, somewhat arbitrary and serve primarily to facilitate the organization of this chapter.

Syllabuses

After determining the objectives (see Stage 2), the first step in preparing to teach a course is the selection of *what* students are to learn. The first decision about syllabus is often made in selecting a textbook, and although the plan is always to make adaptations for our particular needs even as we make that choice, it is not easy to escape the rigid boundaries defined by the table of contents.

However, there is a rapidly growing interest in the syllabus, especially among European teachers of English as a second language. Wilkins (161), a leading theorist in this area, provides the primary basis for the following discussion.

Grammatical syllabuses

The traditional syllabus, which organizes the vast majority of our textbooks, is based on grammar, taught in small, progressive steps until the "essentials" of the foreign language's structure have been covered. There are serious drawbacks to this type of course design:

1 Elements of grammar are taught merely because they exist, not because of their utility, and learning is sometimes inefficient;

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2 The learning task is defined in terms of language *forms*, rather than *meanings* (e.g., though the present tense in Spanish often refers to future events, this is rarely pointed out in textbook presentations);
3 Grammatical inventories tend to neglect syntax; they lead the learner to believe that a pattern, once learned, provides a complete knowledge of the structure, whereas it may have many other uses. Wilkins (161) gives the example of the comparative "John is older than Peter" in contrast with "older than the discovery of electricity was the invention of the steam-engine" (pp. 9–10);
4 The grammatical syllabus ignores the problem of how a sentence is used in an act of communication. The imperative, for example, is usually defined as the grammatical structure used for commands, but when a teacher says, "I'd like you to write a composition for tomorrow," students understand they have received an order.

Alexander (1) stresses the motivational aspects of the syllabus, stating that students' goals are functional rather than grammatical; they want to *do* something with the language. Furthermore, he feels that the grammatical syllabus tends to encourage absurdities such as what he calls the "Have you got a nose?" approach. Try doing a pattern drill based on the relative positions of the book and the table in English, and it immediately becomes clear how dull and inane the product of this kind of syllabus *can* be.

Situational syllabi

One alternative to the grammatical syllabus is the situational syllabus in which the content is based on situations the learner is likely to encounter. Often consisting of units such as "Taking the Train" or "Ordering in a Restaurant," this syllabus is common in courses for tourists.

An excellent example of the possibilities of this course design is presented in the 1975 Northeast Conference reports (Born, 14). The primary difficulties with this kind of syllabus are situations students in a general course are likely to encounter, and that the number of situations requiring a highly predictable use of language is very limited. Furthermore, most things people say are appropriate in a variety of situations, and it would seem more efficient to teach items with a high potential for transfer first.

Functional/notional syllabi

The proposal, then, is for a notional syllabus; "Instead of asking how speakers of the language express themselves or when and where they use the language, we ask what it is they communicate through language. We are then able to organize language teaching in terms of the content rather than the forms of the language" (Wilkins, 161, p. 18).

Shaw (134) calls the notional syllabus "... one of the most fruitful and illuminating ideas of recent years both for syllabus design and for language teaching in general" (p. 222). It has received considerable attention in Europe and among teachers of English as a foreign language and is just beginning to receive attention in American journals (Valdman, 148).

Although Wilkins (161) does not attempt to construct a notional syllabus, he does describe the framework according to which one might be built. The following are but the major headings he lists:

Semantico-grammatical categories or concepts Time/Quantity/Numerals/Space/Relational Meaning/Deixis (the relationship of the utterance to its context)

Categories of modal meaning (the attitude of speakers toward what they are saying) Scale of certainty/Scale of commitment

Categories of communicative function Judgment and evaluation/Suasion/Argument/Rational enquiry and exposition/Expressing personal emotions/Expressing emotional relations with the person addressed

This last category is often neglected in the grammatical syllabus, where efforts tend to be concentrated on developing inquiry and exposition skills such as reporting and describing, while giving relatively little attention to the other speech acts (Wilkins, 161, p.42). Students are taught how to *tell* about speech acts ("He asked her to leave"), but not how to *perform* them ("Get out of here!"). Wilkins is not denying the importance of learning grammatical facts or vocabulary, but is saying that these cannot be the sole basis for choosing what to teach and when to teach it.

Alexander (1) agrees, pointing out that strict adherence to a functional approach would result in nothing but an "internalized phrasebook." Lee (86), too, says, "notional, grammatical and situational syllabuses are in my view best regarded as *pre*-syllabuses rather than as syllabus proper. That is to say, one should draw upon them to compile a syllabus for a particular type of learner and set of teaching/learning circumstances" (p. 249). Sampson (123) compares the teaching of foreign language to the teaching of language arts courses, where fluency preceeds accuracy, function preceeds form, and linguistic structures are studied when students have demonstrated a need to study them.

Although Wilkins (161) admits that sometimes grammatical priorities take precedence, he argues for a syllabus in which the functions of language play a larger role than they do in the grammatical syllabus. He gives as an example the teaching of prepositions, suggesting that they not be taught in a lump, but that their spatial, temporal, and grammatical uses be clearly distinguished. Because there is no one-to-one relationship between function and language, he stresses the importance of developing extensive listening comprehension skills, since students with limited abilities to express themselves still need to understand a wide variety of responses.

Corder (28) points out that what he calls rhetoric and what linguists refer to as the rules of discourse comprise another neglected area. Every culture and subculture has rules which determine who can speak when and to whom and what is socially appropriate to say and how. Infractions of these rules create misunderstandings. In our culture, for example, a primary rule is that only one person speaks at a time and in turn. Anyone who has tried to participate in a lively discussion with native speakers of French is aware that their culture has different rules! Though not much is yet known about these rules of discourse, work in comparative analysis, is being done which should have some impact in the near future.

Even if descriptions of the rules existed, Corder (28) is pessimistic about our ability to teach them because the only ones demonstrable in the classroom are those which apply to the teacher/student relationship. However, McKay (94) advocates field research for students studying in the target language environment, and DiPietro (37) makes a case for learning some of these rules by using literature to explore situational constraints.

While the primary interest of the functional-notional syllabus may lie in special interest courses (French for Travelers, Spanish for Public Health Workers, Conversational German) or, as Stratton points out (143), for the learner living in the foreign language environment, current interest in the communicative aspects of language should lead to a serious consideration of the theoretical background of these proposals.

Materials are beginning to appear which may give guidance in designing more relevant and more effective courses. In *Un niveau-seuil* (A Threshold Level) (Coste et al., 30), the French have used the functional/notional approach to establish an enormous inventory (language acts, grammar points, and vocabulary) as a basis for building a syllabus or syllabuses for adult learners who want to achieve communicative competence. Similar work has been done in Spanish and in German (Coste, 29), and some English materials labeled "functional" are beginning to appear. White (160) has presented detailed plans for a functional approach to the teaching of the simple past in English.

However, we should perhaps remember that Rivers (122), as early as 1972, pointed out eleven "natural uses of language" which are essentially functional categories, and yet few ways to incorporate them into present syllabuses have been found. Cook (26) states that at present "notional categories are a convenient system for organizing teaching in a practical way without any greater significance, a rule of thumb rather than a scientific theory" (p. 16). For readers interested in pursuing the theoretical aspects, Shaw's review article (134) provides the most recent and extensive bibliography as of this writing.

Language courses for special purposes

Teachers of English as a second language, who have had to deal with the problems of teaching a heterogeneous group with specific personal objectives in a limited time, are turning to the functional/notional approach. Strevens (144), describing a functional approach to the design of courses in English for Special Purposes, lists these communicative categories in a course for factory workers: 1) Instructions; 2) Questions; 3) Seeking advice; 4) Stating difficulties or objections; 5) Suggesting alternatives; 6) Measurements and quantities; 7) Dangers and emergencies, signals, safety rules, 8) Injury, health.

The concept of the mini-course, which has been extensively presented by Lafayette (83), might blend very nicely with the special purpose course design if language functions were distributed throughout various topics and/or themes.

Sequence

The concept of the syllabus also implies ordering the material to be studied. Often this progression has been determined on the basis of the four skills. The audiolingual approach involves listening, speaking, reading, and writing (in that order), and some advocates have recommended delay of presentation of written forms for considerable periods in an attempt to reduce negative transfer from English. While this ordering seems fairly widespread, there are other possibilities.

Asher, et al. (4) have developed and tested an approach which relies primarily on students' physical responses to the teacher's oral commands at the early stages. Sandberg (125) would have us begin with reading skills. He argues that since learners must be cognizant of rules and meanings before beginning to express themselves, reading is the most efficient mode of filling the "cognitive bin."

While it is generally accepted that the presentation should proceed from simpler to more complex structures, Valdman (148) points out that frequency and utility should play a larger role than previously if the objective is communicative competence. He also suggests contrastive analysis, language acquisition universals, and the strategies learners use as criteria for sequencing the syllabus.

Wilkins (161) proposes a cyclical model for ordering the notional syllabus. At the beginning level a French student learns to make requests by using the imperative: "*S'il vous plaît, passez-moi le sel.*" Later the conditional would be taught: "*Est-ce que vous pourriez me passer le sel?*" Still later the student would encounter variations of the same speech act: "*Auriez-vous la bonté de me passer le sel?*" Valdman (148) likewise proposes that listening skills be increased a few steps ahead of active skills in the cycle.

Culture

Over the last few years a new component has been added to foreign language syllabi—culture. While previously literature and history dominated advanced levels, there is now considerable pressure to include culture, especially the patterns of everyday life, from the very beginning of the sequence. In the ACTFL Series, Seelye (131), Morain (100), Nostrand (103), and Jarvis (73) have addressed themselves with great thoroughness to the theoretical and practical aspects of teaching culture, but the following represent some recently reported strategies.

Loew (90) has developed a procedure for conducting cultural research within the classroom. The process begins with small-group discussion of an artifact, and students are instructed to try to deduce answers to a series of questions:

- What are its physical qualities?
- How was it made, by hand or machine?
- How much time was probably required to produce it?
- Was it always in its present form?
- What is its purpose?
- Was it designed for a particular use?
- Is it decorative?
- Are there implicit meanings in the design?
- What role would it play in the culture?
- Does it have social meaning—status, wealth, power, prestige, workmanship?
- Does it have personal associations?
- What facts can be determined about the culture from the known data?
- What can be inferred from the unknown data?

The groups then share their tentative conclusions and use either the teacher or outside resources for confirmation.

Elliott (38) gives suggestions for using a number of French songs, poems, and counting rhymes in the classroom, and Mollica (98, 99) does the same for cartoons and movie advertisements. Hahn (60) has used slides of magazine advertisements to guide her students to an understanding of an inquiry approach to the study of culture. For example, after viewing a series of slides which illustrate the generalization that, in Germany, the table is a symbol of family unity and a focus for interaction, students are encouraged to find other illustrations of this concept.

Geno (50) recommends that the teacher who wants to present a cultural topic for which he or she feels unprepared seek help from colleagues in other fields in addition to conducting research through other sources. He also presents a series of four steps by which the teacher might direct intermediate students in cultural research and assimilation of their discoveries.

Approaches and strategies

Once the content has been determined we must decide how to proceed, what will actually happen in the classroom. This section will treat some of the most and some of the least widely known approaches their characteristic strategies, and elements that are maintained and adapted in successful programs today.

The grammar-translation approach

In this traditional mode for developing reading skill, students were asked to define parts of speech, memorize paradigms, learn vocabulary from lists of English/foreign language equivalents, and translate. The profession rose up so vigorously to attack this approach that, although some have changed their minds about its total awfulness, they feel vaguely guilty and tend to give lengthy rationalizations for "backsliding."

Translation, for example, was anathema in the early days of audiolingualism, but today, though few would argue for extensive reliance on word-for-word decoding, many teachers do use some forms of translation. Collins (24) acknowledges that it is regarded by many as an "outdated horror," but he also says that it is "a revelation to students of the superficial manner in which all of us, all too often, read and listen" (p. 532). As an example of the possible benefits of translating, he points out the linguistic and cultural value of comparing French Canadian and American advertising literature.

Heilenman (62) also makes a case for native language equivalents, in this instance for vocabulary learning, especially when there is limited time to learn a large quantity of words and no natural setting in which to learn them. In this situation, she argues, "rote learning becomes an efficient means of coping." This may be why Westphal (158) found very positive student reactions to sets of flash cards bearing French/English equivalents.

The direct method

This methodology came into being as a reaction to the rote learning in the grammar-translation approach. Lado (81) stated that its primary goal was to form associations between words or sentences and their meanings by dramatizing, demonstrating, pointing, and so forth, thereby avoiding the use of the native language. Translation and the memorization of grammar rules were de-emphasized or eliminated. Although there are few references today to the direct method, demonstrations are used to present vocabulary and structure. This approach also forms the basis for the audio-motor unit (Kalivoda, et al., 77) and the total physical response approach (Asher, et al., 4), both of which have attracted national attention.

The audiolingual approach

The classical form of the audiolingual approach (Lado, 81) views language as essentially a spoken rather than a written form, and students spend most of their class time memorizing dialogues and manipulating structures in a wide variety of pattern drills. The teacher corrects errors immediately, seeking responses that are as close as possible to native speed and accuracy. Word-for-word translation and the use of the native language are avoided.

Although this approach has been roundly criticized in the past few years, primarily because of its potential for rote learning and meaningless repetition, both dialogues and structure drills are still widely used and continue to be widely valued. In fact, Warriner (153) contends that the audiolinguists "provided theory and methodology for us that are unsurpassed in their potential impact on foreign language teaching" (p. 295).

The dialogue continues to be an effective way to introduce structure and vocabulary in a meaningful context, though there is currently less stress on total memorization. Feeny (44) would ask the student to reproduce lines from the dialogue using a kind of clozed text as a supporting device. For example, the student sees "*¿Supo ....? Me gustaría ....*" and is asked to produce the dialog line "*¿Supo lo de Raúl? Me gustaría estar en su lugar*" (p. 82). Feeny (43) also suggests that when the students are well on their way to mastery of the dialogue they be given the opportunity to challenge the teacher by asking questions which have been left unanswered in the text. The entire past, present, and future worlds of the dialogue figures are fair game. In this way the teacher supplies a larger context for the dialogue and also encourages students to move to more communicative language use.

The structure drill has also retained a role in most classrooms, where it seems to fill the developing student's need for control of morphology and syntax. Paulston's (110) classification of drills into *mechanical, meaningful,* and *communicative* categories has perhaps led us to limit the use of mechanical exercises and to assure that they are *means* not *ends.*

Rassias (116) has sparked the foreign language program at Dartmouth College with a highly audiolingual approach which has gained wide recognition. One of his primary objectives is to maintain a high rate of response, an average of sixty-five times per student per one-hour drill session. His dialog approach is similar to Feeny's (44), requiring students to memorize only the more important parts of a somewhat extended text.

Lantolf (84) asks students to create interrogative drills. A student leader writes a sentence on the board, points to a slot in that sentence, and asks a classmate to supply the appropriate questions. Villani (152) uses microconversations as drill material: "I had four francs. I gave him one. He gave me back five. Now I have eight."

Pointing out that advanced students often complain of losing the fluency they had gained at earlier levels, Smith (135) has adapted structure drills to check reading comprehension as well as to give meaningful language practice. In one drill students expand sentences by replacing pronouns in the cues with the nouns mentioned in the story. He gives examples from *Le Petit Prince:* Cue: "*Le petit prince le réveille.*" Response: "*Le petit prince réveille le pilote*" (p. 527).

La Vergne [illegible] underscores the difficulties involved in creating structure drills. Traditionally based on contrastive analyses between the target and native languages, they have been used to practice grammar points which are not congruent in the two languages. He suggests that these analyses have often not gone far enough and that both inter- and intralingual similarity are important at early levels of instruction.

Media-based approaches

The first media-based approaches grew from a need to teach groups of learners with no common language as well as from a desire to limit classroom interaction to the target language. The programs were designed primarily to provide a context in which the meaning was clearly specified by a visual. Today media seem to be used for support rather than as the fundamental aspect of the program.

Many teachers have tried to adapt and/or create visuals such as those used in the programs mentioned above. Scanlan (129) gives several suggestions for using photographs as a springboard for creative language use. However, Cole (23) cautions the teacher who plans to supply meanings exclusively through visuals by saying, "It is naive to assume that in structured audio-visual language courses a given utterance can be matched with a single composite non-coded picture that conveys its 'meaning' more adequately or effectively than direct translation" (p. 349).

Results of a survey by Stack (136) indicate a stable or increasing interest at the university level in language laboratories, but their promise as a primary tool during the early audiolingual years has not been fulfilled. Today, as then, there seems to be a lack of materials that are related to classroom experiences and are also challenging and interesting to the student (Calvé, 19; Racle, 113). One writer, however, claims that for her "Happiness Is . . . A Language Lab" (Metford, 97). This is no doubt due to her creation of "variety programs" for the lab—combinations of drills on structure, pronunciation and translation, listening comprehension exercises, and songs.

Because of its capacity for interaction, the computer promises even more than the language lab. Clifford (22) is developing an excellent series of programs at the University of Minnesota to augment German instruction at the secondary level. In Canada a program has been developed to teach students to read and write French. The IBM/1500 system, for which the program was written, includes an image projector with a 1000 frame capacity and allows the student to indicate a choice of response with a light-sensitive pen (McEwen, 93). A voice synthesizer has been connected to a computer to provide oral practice (145). The capabilities are now available to meet Henning's (65) call for reading programs in which students could request glosses as needed. A program could be written to provide a gloss only three times, to gradually shorten the time the student would see the gloss, and to provide hints instead of the full gloss.

The potential is enormous, but there are also problems which will delay the widespread use of the computer for school language learning. The first is that programming is an extremely sophisticated field—despite what the matchbook covers say—and it is unlikely that it will become an integral part of the preparation of foreign language teachers. Secondly, programmers do not speak our language. They are generally technicians, not teachers, and communication with them can be frustrating and time-consuming. Thirdly, the cost of computer time and equipment for instruction is still prohibitive. Finally, the incompatibility of various systems discourages any sharing of computer programs. One real lack is a clearinghouse for programs in foreign language learning which *could* be shared.

The current call for the use of authentic materials may increase use of the shortwave radio. Grigsby (57) reports considerable excitement on the part of his third-year college French students. He spent several weeks preparing his students by introducing them to a large number of acronyms, names, geography, current issues, etc. He also states that copies of the *Learning by Radio Interest Group Newsletter* are available to those who send a supply of self-addressed, stamped envelopes to Professor Robert J. Nelson, Managing Editor, Department of French, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801.

The videotape recorder appears to be used on an occasional basis for filming skits and showing programs recorded from public broadcasts. More extensive use seems rare, but Beatie and Labrador (8) describe a college-level Spanish course based on videotaped copies of commercial films, and Nuccitelli and Pellissier (104) report on the use of videotape as an integral part of a large elementary language program at the university level.

Slides are used in every classroom, but Berwald (10) describes a method for preparing removable captions. He uses two projectors and the slide carrying the caption consists of a negative from a single lens reflex camera and mounted in a slide frame. This technique might be especially useful for learning dialogue lines or for reading practice.

A somewhat more esoteric piece of equipment, the sound visualizer, may someday be available for diagnostic and teaching purposes. James (71) has tested a machine which traces the intonation pattern of a live or recorded model sentence on an oscilloscope screen. The model pattern remains on the top half of the screen as the learner repeats the sentence and sees the pattern traced by his or her voice on the bottom half.

Cognitive code-learning

The cognitive approach is based on a conception of language learning in which the student's conscious and unconscious faculties play an active role—constantly processing the linguistic data to which they are exposed—instead of simply forming stimulus/response links as the audiolingual approach presupposes. The primary maxim is that the material be *meaningful* to the students, that they understand the function and the meaning of grammar rules as well as vocabulary. Characteristic strategies include deductive grammar presentations and translations in addition to drills and dialog manipulation, but Chastain (21) urges that as soon as the teacher has verified the students' comprehension, emphasis should move quickly to contextualization.

Sandberg (124) prefers to present rules at the end of a five-step sequence which begins with an effort to make the student aware of the grammatical concept by creating a linguistic context in which its meaning is apparent. Awareness is followed by pairing the concept with the form, practice, and verification of students' predictions before any rule is formulated.

Whimbey and Barberena (159) report that Bowling Green State University has developed a special course in Spanish based on cognitive-skill learning for educationally deficient students. The materials lead the students to apply well defined problem-solving approaches to grammar exercises. Gradually, the guideposts provided in the materials are removed. The authors state that after having used these materials, students were able to work successfully with a textbook they had previously found frustrating.

As in the learning of structure, we have become more and more aware of the cognitive processes involved in learning to read a foreign language. King et al. (78) treat these processes extensively and also describe many classroom strategies. Phillips (111) points out that reading instruction cannot consist exclusively of making an assignment, but that students can and should be encouraged to exercise the cognitive processes they use in reading their native language. To accomplish this she describes several pre- and post-reading activities; others are presented by Medley (95).

To increase the meaningfulness of the material, Currie (33) proposes that beginning readers first be exposed to a passage orally. The first time they listen, they check off items on a list of words and phrases taken in order from the text. The second time through, the listed phrases are in English. These phrases are familiar to the students and this helps build the new readers' confidence. As a third step, students read the passage silently and then do written exercises which check comprehension and reinforce new material.

Sandberg (126) reports that at Macalester College students are asked to diagnose their own deficiencies at the beginning of the intermediate course, where it is difficult for the instructor to know exactly what is meaningful to each student. Students take a diagnostic test and then make a catalog of the structures they do not recognize.

Cognitive strategies may also improve writing skills. Cooper (27) believes that practice in producing more complex sentences can accelerate the development of "syntactic maturity." He suggests the following steps:

1) students practice embedding sentences—e.g., they combine two short sentences with a relative pronoun;
2) students break down a short passage into its constituent phrases and then reconstruct it;
3) They describe a picture, using short sentences (e.g., I see a boy. He's handsome. His hair is black. His hair is long.), and then rewrite them to combine whatever they can (In this picture I see a handsome boy with long, black hair.).

With regard to vocabulary learning, Ott et al. (108) review the psychological literature on paired-associate and serial learning. They conclude that "elaboration strategies establishing verbal or visual associations as mnemonic devices are extensively used by subjects on verbal memorization tasks, whether or not the subjects are given specific instructions to do so" (p. 45). In their experiment the student creates a visual image to link the meaning of foreign language word with an English word which has some *phonetic* resemblance to it. For example, to learn *mère* in French, a student might visualize his/her mother sitting on a *mare*.

An outgrowth of the most recent understandings of language learning as cognitive processing is the conception and treatment of learner errors. If errors are viewed as evidence of the students' hypotheses about the language or as manifestations of their learning strategies, they must be treated differently than if they are regarded as evidence of insufficient practice. Instead of immediately correcting the error and putting the learner through a drill, the teacher might offer a clarification, ask the student for an explanation of his or her hypothesis, or simply ignore the mistake for the time being. Fanselow (41) found that errors in syntax, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation occurred an average of once every fifteen seconds, and it may therefore be unrealistic to even *try* to correct all of them.

Valdman's chapter (149) in another volume of this series gives an extensive treatment of learner errors. More recent reports include Fanselow (41) who videotaped lessons presented by eleven experienced teachers of English as a second language to investigate how they treated learners' errors. He found that they ignored some, and often merely signaled the errors by frowning, saying "no," pointing to a chart, etc. In only 8 percent of the cases did the teacher provide a hint. Fanselow believes that more fruitful approaches to correction would involve clarifying and correcting the students' linguistic hypotheses so as to fix rules more firmly in their long-term memory. To do this he suggests using discrimination drills of minimal pairs, asking students to categorize forms, helping students to analyze the correct form, and providing more extensive examples of the structure. Although he recognizes that many teachers are adamantly opposed to using errors as examples, he thinks they may in fact be of value in correcting a student who consistently has been using an incorrect form.

Vigil and Oller (151) also stress that correction, is essential if errors are not to "fossilize." Many writers have pointed out the negative affective results of constant correction, but Vigil and Oller advise reinterpreting this concern. "As long as the affective messages conveyed to the student are predominantly positive, frequent instances of negative cognitive feedback are not likely to do any harm, and in fact are probably essential to a high level of attainment on the part of learners in foreign language classrooms" (p. 294).

There has also been considerable discussion about which errors to correct first. Burt and Kiparsky (18) suggest that those errors which most endanger the success of the communication venture should be the first to receive our attention. Hendrickson (63) investigated the relative importance of correcting global errors (those that would cause a native speaker to misunderstand) versus local errors (those that make a message sound ungrammatical or unidiomatic but not incomprehensible) in the compositions of adult learners of English as a second language. To tally errors he used the matrix in Figure 1:

	Lexical	Morphological	Syntactic	Orthographic
Local				
Global				

Fig. 1 Tally grid for student errors
(Hendrickson, 63)

Although correcting only the global errors did not produce any significant effect after six weeks, Hendrickson (64) thinks that classifying errors for individual students should provide the teacher with valuable data for program modification.

Individualized instruction

The movement toward individualized instruction may not yet have resulted in individually prescribed, self-paced learning for each of our students, but the sheer number of exposures to its concepts has certainly affected all of us.

The development of programmed materials, learning activity packets, and teacher-prepared worksheets has met a particular need for self-instructional offerings. Beatie (7) has developed a package which, except for examinations, allows college students to learn to read German on a totally independent basis. Pontillo (112) reports success with a self-instructional program in Greek and Japanese at the high school level.

Rather than totally independent study which may lead to the "sterile carrel syndrome" if students are deprived of human interaction, more teachers seem interested in using the strategies of individualized instruction in conjunction with a teacher-centered approach.

Some teachers plan individualized activities for various time segments throughout the course. After studying the first two acts of *Hernani* with a fourth-year high school French class, Klein (79) asked his students to complete the play on their own. They read and were tested on each act; they listened to a professional recording and then identified random passages; they prepared and presented a short scene before the class; they wrote a short paper on a topic of their choice. He reports that his students were very pleased with the approach but also welcomed the return to the traditional, teacher-centered format when it was completed.

For the past eight years, Wells (155) has reserved one day per week for her students to work on grammar, conversation, comprehension, pronunciation, and vocabulary enrichment at skill-building stations. Students move from station to station as they master the material there. Although Wells has help from paraprofessionals, this approach could be adapted to a classroom with a single teacher if some stations were supervised by students and others allowed students to work alone on reading games, recorded material, etc.

Boring (13) describes a modified contract approach to differentiate out-of-class assignments. In two advanced college courses in Spanish she allowed students to choose among outside assignments to earn points which determined 40 percent of their grades. This permitted more capable students to elect the more challenging assignments, which carried a higher point value.

Reading offers many opportunities for individualization of instruction, but more often than not it becomes individualization *without* instruction, as we assign and then test. Henning (65) found that the use of a programmed workbook designed to clarify structure as well as vocabulary significantly improved reading skills. Acknowledging the time and effort involved in preparing such support materials, he hopes that teachers will not only share what they develop with one another, but that publishers will begin to meet this need.

Perhaps the most widespread outgrowth of the individualized instruction movement has been the use of small groups in the classroom. Baker (5) has provided a comprehensive rationale for their use as well as many ideas for activities.

Cramer (31), in an advanced conversation and composition course, gives responsibility for preparing and conducting a weekly discussion to groups of two or three students. She also allows time for them to discuss, in English, their reactions to the procedure. Beck (9) used small group discussion, both with and without her presence, as a supplement to her literature lectures. At the intermediate college level Geno (51) requires groups to prepare the rest of the class with new vocabulary and then make a final presentation. To facilitate the activity, he appoints group leaders from among the "go-getters" in the class and solicits their help in maintaining the use of French in the groups, making sure all members are involved, grading them on their participation, and so forth.

For those who have qualms about experimenting with group work, Boylan and Lett (15) have developed the "trouble-shooting guide" (see Figure 2) which makes potential problems clear and also suggests ways to prevent them from arising.

Papalia (109) discusses the various roles which participants in a group task may assume (initiator, information seeker, evaluator, compromiser, follower, etc.) and urges teachers to observe their own behavior as well as that of the group members at work. The tendency is, especially when grouping only occasionally, to ignore the importance of roles in groups, an importance of which other disciplines are more aware. Wengert, Vernon, and Strub (157), a team of two guidance counselors and one science teacher, worked with junior high science students to develop awareness of roles and skills in performing them. In one activity a group attempted to reach a consensus on a survival problem; from a list of seventeen items, which would be most valuable? The students were videotaped as they worked in groups and then analyzed their performances to see how they could work more productively as team members. The teachers' objectives were not only to create teams of learners who could function efficiently in the science class but also to improve self-concepts. Wengert (156) believes that the sacrifice in content learning was more than compensated for by the increase in personal growth.

Since, unfortunately, the groups were not maintained the next year, so there is no way to determine if there was any carry-over of the new skills. However, the opportunity to work with the same foreign language students for two and even four years at the secondary level might make it worthwhile to investigate activities expressly designed to encourage group spirit and role development within groups.

Some teachers in Minnesota (Gunderson, 59) have compiled a number of activities and strategies to foster cohesiveness in the four-to-five member groups which comprise their junior high school classes. In addition to responsibility for directing the daily warm-up and teaching their classmates, groups work on projects such as puppet plays and competitive games.

Fig. 2 Trouble shooting guide *(Boylan and Lett, 15)*

Problem	Probable cause(s)	Possible treatments
A few students always dominate, while others are always silent	Personality traits; some talk more than others in any language	Assign group roles: e.g., "Your task is to involve group members who do not volunteer much"
	Silent students may be weak in language skills	Give remedial help, and/or group weaker ones together for more appropriate activities
A lot of initial chaos and/or hostility	Not clear how to form groups	Use teacher-selection to reduce confusion until grouping is familiar
	Students frustrated because they cannot understand task	Clarify instructions. Remember, one part at a time
	Students resent having to produce more than before	Have faith: if it's fun, this will change!
	Students do not see relevance of activity	Explain. Also, help them discover their own learning goals, and structure activities to meet them
	Students inexperienced with group work	Wait it out and smile through your teeth
A lot of "goofing" during task time, and/or widespread unwillingness to do a given task	Group members may be new to each other	Accept the goofing for the time being
	Task too hard—they just cannot do it	Simplify task or abandon it
	Task may not be interesting or relevant at all to lives of students	Abandon it and do something else. Get suggestions from students
	Group includes too many exuberant goofers	Separate them
A lot of goofing toward end of time	Task too easy or short for allotted time	Call time and go to follow-up session
Students never seem to take task seriously	Students not held accountable	Do so in follow-up sessions
	Students do not see relevance	See sixth treatment, above
Too much noise for groups to function	Unaware of overexuberance	Explain need for mutual cooperation so all can hear
Any of above—or anything else	A "real" discipline problem: no respect for self, peers, or authority	Take action as appropriate, given you, the student, the situation, and your school's policy

The communicative approach

Presently, the communicative approach seems to be a hodge-podge of strategies rather than a well-defined approach and appears to be grafted onto a fairly traditional grammatical syllabus, although there are exceptions (Jordan, 76). Typically, stress is on meaningful use of language with reference to the real world, and simulations of linguistic transactions are believable if not totally real. The goal is creative and spontaneous language use rather than linguistic accuracy.

As early as the first volume of this series, Jakobovits (70) was raising the question of the development of communicative competence. Volume 6 (Jarvis, 74) was devoted to language as communication, and there have been hundreds of articles, workshops, and books on the topic since the appearance of Savignon's study (127), which demonstrated that practice in actual communication not only improved student achievement in some areas, but was valued by learners. The concept has been applied at every level, from the elementary school classroom (Met, 96) to the adult education course (Carton, 20).

In 1977 Joiner (75) wrote "... communicating ideas in a second language, while common 'in the street,' is still uncommon in many foreign language classrooms" (p. 236). Some teachers have consciously rejected the approach, but many others are dismayed to find that if they wish to adopt it, their materials are ineffective, and they must constantly be seeking new strategies to adapt what they do have.

Freeman (46) and Olsen (107) have produced collections of strategies for speaking activities. Another new source of ideas is *Oral Communication Testing* (Linder, 89), a project of the American Association of Teachers of French. The editor has compiled a number of fully developed techniques in French that are useful as exercises, as well as tests. For example, in a listening comprehension exercise the students receive an outline sketch of a human being. The teacher then describes the path of "*Maître Microbe*" (Master Germ) as he enters the body of the unfortunate victim and travels all over seeking a proper site for infection. Students trace the path they hear described (p. 37). In a similar vein, Gordon (55) recommends teaching direction and motion through the game of chess.

Gordon (54) puts a number of unusual objects, things students would not be able to name in their native language, in a box at the back of the classroom. A volunteer chooses an object from the box, describes it, and responds to classmates' questions. When the class is sure they know what the object is, the teacher gives its foreign language name. This might be an especially valuable exercise in developing skill in paraphrasing, as is another of his strategies a variation on the game of "Gossip" (53). He takes a student aside and reads a narrative to him or her. This student then relates the content of the narrative to a second student, the second to a third, etc. Gordon records all the exchanges, and then the class analyzes the progression of the message.

Nation (102) describes a clever technique based on illustrations (see Figure 3). Students work in pairs, without seeing one another's pictures, and discuss their respective pictures until they are able to agree whether they have a match or not. It is the responsibility of the holder of the picture marked with an X to initiate the conversation.

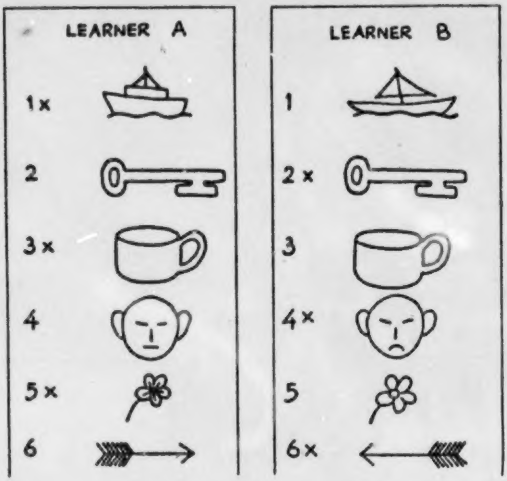

Fig. 3 Example of the combining arrangement
(Nation, 102)

Rassias' students (116) often participate in what he calls "micrologues. The instructor speaks on a limited topic for one minute to a single student. That student listens and then attempts an oral recapitulation of what he or she has just heard. Other members of the class might be questioned on the information, or the whole micrologue might be dictated. Rassias finds this an especially valuable way to present cultural data.

In an effort to broaden the situational context of the classroom, Hall (61) uses recorded sound effects. Listening to a series of these sounds (a snore, a knock at the door, etc.), students first respond by choosing among the following: *¡Adelante! ¡Cuidado! ¡Despierte! ¡Alto ahí! ¡Pare!* They then use the recorded cues to help recall memorized dialogues and finally incorporate them in dialogues of their own creation.

Sell (132) describes a technique used extensively in the second through fourth semesters of the "speaking sequence" (an alternative to the four-skills and reading sequences at the University of Illinois at Champaign-Urbana). He uses linguistic, acoustic, visual, tactile, or situational cues to touch off students' free associations. This is certainly an excellent way to encourage divergent thinking, a component that Birckbichler (11) regards as essential in developing creativity in languages.

Freed (45) has developed a communicative approach to reading. She divides a written text into fragments, each of which is given in random order to someone in the class. The task is for the class to reach consensus on the original order of the fragments, by depending on oral communication.

Simulation and role playing are also popular strategies within the communicative approach. Hollingsworth (66) responded to her students' frustrated desires to visit France by organizing a five-day "vicarious trip" through that country, during which they ordered meals, rented bicycles, took taxis, and cabled home for money. The students also kept diaries of their imaginary journey.

Carton (20) has developed a number of rather extended simulations for the adult education classroom. She gives considerable detail for fully exploiting the various roles involved in the writing and mailing of letters in a post office simulation. For a course in literature, Stanislawczyk and Yavener (137) propose a simulation of a seventeenth-century *salon* after a discussion of the *précieux* movement.

Having interviewed many students to see how they go about doing grammar exercises, Hosenfeld (69) has found that if the items follow a similar pattern, as they usually do, most students pay no attention to the meaning of the language they are manipulating. She presents three characteristics which make grammar tasks communicative rather than mechanical:

1 They are designed so that the learner must understand the meaning of the sentence and accomplish the intended grammar learnings in order to complete them successfully.
2 They cause him to express his thoughts, feelings, perceptions, or beliefs.
3 They are rich in associations and lead naturally and inevitably into skill-using activities (p. 6).

Instead of a substitution drill to teach prepositions (*Je vais en France, à Paris, au Mexique*), Hosenfeld suggests offering students a list of places to choose from as they respond to the question "Where would you like to go?" They are allowed to choose from the list or to supply any other meaningful answer. The teacher might then ask for a rationale for each choice, encouraging other students to respond to the content of their classmates' answers.

Because it is so difficult to teach original composition skills, especially at early levels, it is often ignored. Colman (25) assigns a topic and students supply the following information as they write or speak: What? Who? Where? When? Why? How? Give an example. How do I feel about it? She finds that students rapidly develop the ability to write meaningfully on a wide variety of subjects.

A course designed to develop communicative competence is described by Jordan (76). Giving intermediate students another dose of instruction at a beginning level will not prepare them adequately to function in advanced level courses. Instead of reviewing grammar, students in the communicative competence course work with four-week units built around topics such as introductions, refusals, and humor; in addition to learning vocabulary and structure, they are also required to interact with native speakers.

Terrell (147), describing his "natural approach" points out two kinds of learning—learning per se, which is a conscious process, and acquisition, "the unconscious absorption of general principles of grammar through real experience of communication using L2" (p. 327). If communicative competence is the goal, he feels grammar learning should be relegated to self-correcting exercises done outside of class. Class time should be spent on communicative practice focusing on content, and no speech errors should be corrected, since the primary goal is to put the student at ease. He also suggests that students be permitted to respond in their native language at the early stages since "the main objective in the first class sessions is to convince the student that he can understand utterances in the second language ... " (p. 332). With his college students, the switch to the target language takes about one week. He also stresses the acquisition of vocabulary (twenty-five words per day for recognition).

Goldin (52) objects to this natural approach on the grounds that traditional modes of language study are more in keeping with the goals of a liberal education because the combination of learning rules and memorizing vocabulary is a unique intellectual activity in the curriculum. He believes the teacher must choose between structure, an "intellectual pursuit," and communication, which he thinks of as skills acquisition.

Humanistic approaches

Approaches such as the "affective," "personal," or "confluent," are aimed at meeting and involving the affective needs of students in addition to, and perhaps even *before*, their cognitive needs. Galyean (48) has written a full description of the theoretical foundations and strategies for this approach. Further discussion is found in this volume in Stage 4.

Programs based exclusively on this approach seem rare, but many of the low-risk strategies are finding wide acceptance. Hahn (60) has adapted a number of values clarification activities to increase crosscultural awareness. One of these involves discussion of a collage made from magazine illustrations which show cultural connotations of a common word such as house, wine, or smoking.

Horwitz and Horwitz (67) point out that empathetic responses (clarifying and reflecting the speaker's feelings and thoughts) are important to cross-cultural communication because they tend to decrease the influence of cultural stereotypes; they provide the speaker with feedback as to how successfully he or she is communicating, and they force the speaker to consider whether or not he or she is being understood. These authors suggest three ways to develop empathetic responses in students: 1) explanation and practice; 2) role playing to experience responses which vary in their degree of empathy; 3) modeling by the teacher.

Less widely known approaches

"A number of recent writers on methodology have seemed to believe that, as far as language teaching is concerned, the two boundary posts of the inhabited world are audiolingual habit theory and cognitive code-learning, and that any teacher or textbook finds a place somewhere between these extremes" (Stevick, 139, p. 104). Such a point of view seems myopic considering the variety of approaches available to us. We are, therefore, going to examine a few current approaches, which are not too widely known.

Stevick (139) presents brief analyses of two of these approaches, Community Language Learning (CLL) and The Silent Way, pointing out that in these models the roles of students and teachers are considerably modified.

In CLL (Curran, 32, and Rardin, 115) students are grouped in small, closed circles to converse in the target language. A resource person, trained in nondirective counseling techniques, stands behind the student speaking and provides structure and vocabulary as needed. (At the beginning stage, this amounts to translating what the student wants to say into the foreign language.) The students record the foreign language output generated in this manner, transcribe it, and then discuss the language sample produced as well as their affective reactions to the experience. The primary aims are to create a community of learners in which psychological barriers to learning, such as defense mechanisms, are removed and to provide for total involvement of students on a personally meaningful level.

It is interesting to note that Green (56) has found considerable evidence of regression in second-year college French students, and she states, "The effect of regression on the students—a resurgence of primitive, emotionally-charged material that is liberated by weakened ego defense—is a threatening, anxiety-provoking experience. The ineptness that a speaker of a strange tongue is aware of is paralleled by a more profound *unconscious* anxiety" (p. 183). It would seem that CLL would be more likely to cope with these anxieties than other approaches.

In The Silent Way, developed by Gattegno (49), the instructor provides only the input students absolutely require and then waits for them to do the talking. Speech is always accompanied by some kind of physical action, generally the manipulation of *cuisinaire* rods (colored wooden rods often used to teach math in the elementary school). Stevick (139) suggests that the use of silence in this approach is consistent with what research has recently revealed about short-term memory, and that students should absorb "10 times as much *per model* from the teacher." Stevick's experience attests to the growth of "an atmosphere of solidarity and cooperation among the students" and the "mesmerizing quality of the materials and procedures." But it is not just the use of the rods and the silence that characterize this approach. Stevick (140) also speaks of the "counseling response" of the instructor in The Silent Way—"the warm, sympathetic response of an interested conversationalist." There is no correction, no threat, no positive reinforcement. Rather than "Very good! You're a fine student!" the confirmation is "Yes, yes, of course!"

Psychological approaches are the common thread that runs through the communicative, humanistic approaches as well as these latter ones. It may well be that psychological effects deserve greater consideration than has yet been given them.

Stevick (139) also describes the Suggestopedic approach. The materials consist of a series of long dialogues printed in parallel columns with native language translations. The dialogue is read and students' questions are answered. The teacher then reads it aloud using a prescribed vocal patterning. The third reading is accompanied by selected classical music. The remaining three-fourths of the time spent on the unit are devoted to fairly traditional exploitations of the dialogue. Stevick claims that the videotapes he has seen "look surprisingly like more conventional methods at their best" (p. 158). The differences are in the use of nonverbal modes of communication which emphasize an atmosphere of trust and confidence. A more detailed description of the method (Bancroft, 6) stresses the importance of yoga and other relaxation techniques.

Eclecticism: The most widespread approach

Foreign language teachers across the country are finding success with an amazing variety of syllabi, approaches and techniques. Many of these are presented in more detail than is possible here. Recent collections of strategies include Allen and Valette (2); Olsen (107); Papalia (109); Stanislawczyk and Yavener (137); and Valette (150). The oldest and the newest are all being used successfully somewhere, but it is likely that in the average foreign language classroom, teachers choose from these options those bits and pieces which they judge best for their given situations. This is not surprising since over and over again research has shown that a great many factors are involved in the education process. Today's consensus seems to be that "no single method is equally appropriate for all pupils" (Kunkle, 80).

Cramer (31), for example, experimented with college students and speaking activities, expecting to find that beginning students would prefer highly structured, teacher controlled activities, and that more advanced students would prefer open-ended, creative activities. Though she did find evidence of the expected correspondence, it did not account for preferences as well as the amount of vocal activity for each student did. For some students at each level structure drills were regarded as most stimulating, for others role plays were.

Eclecticism may be the answer to meeting the greatest number of students' needs (Rebuffo, 117). However, as Morrow and Strasheim (101) point out, "eclecticism all too easily evolves into a curricular hodgepodge" (p. 90). They present as a typical example a portrait of the involved and committed teacher who picks up a few worksheets here, a few activities there, and patches them onto the textbook's syllabus. While the variety inherent in this kind of eclecticism may result in students' enthusiasm, it cannot ensure their balanced cognitive-affective-creative growth.

How, then, can one choose from among the various syllabi, approaches, and strategies that which is best for a specific group of learners? Longstreet (91), Resnick (120), and Shavelson (133) believe that the essence of good teaching is the ability to make good decisions, and that this is a skill which can be learned and improved. Let us, therefore, look more closely at the decision-making process.

Decision making

Reviewing the literature of psychology on this subject, Janis and Mann (72) extract seven criteria which determine the quality of decision-making procedures. To reach the best decision, within the limits of available resources, the decision maker:

1 examines the broad variety of courses of action;
2 surveys the objectives to be satisfied and their implications in terms of values;
3 carefully considers the possible positive and negative consequences of each of the available alternatives;
4 makes a strong effort to find further information for evaluating alternatives;
5 is able to accept new information even if it conflicts with an original choice of course of action;
6 re-examines the consequences of all alternatives, including those discarded at first;
7 moves to implement the chosen course of action, with contingency plans in case foreseen risks materialize.

The emphasis in this model is on the careful examination of as many alternatives as possible. Though large numbers of options cannot guarantee a wise choice, without them wisdom can only be accidental.

Janis and Mann (72) also describe a number of strategies for making decisions. The normative or prescriptive model they present is the optimizing strategy, "selecting the course of action with the highest payoff" (p. 21). However, this requires an estimate of the comparative costs and benefits of every viable alternative, an estimate that is normally not very reliable. Another strategy is "elimination by aspects" (p. 31), wherein the decision maker formulates a set of criteria which the eventual choice of course of action must meet. For example, there may be fourteen ways to introduce a given set of vocabulary words; the first aspect selected might be an exclusively oral mode of presentation, eliminating five of the alternatives. The second aspect might be that students be actively involved, eliminating six more. The process continues until all alternatives but one are eliminated. The major problem with this strategy is that relatively minor criteria may be used in the initial steps instead of occurring only at the final choice stage.

"Satisficing" is seeking a decision that is "good enough, that meets a minimal set of requirements." The decision maker stops examining alternatives when one is found that "will do" (p. 25).

Since the decisions faced in the classroom vary in importance, the strategies used to deal with them must vary accordingly. Trying to "optimize" the choice of colored paper on which to print a worksheet is not worth the effort required, but it *is* an important consideration in building a syllabus. Satisficing or eliminating by aspects, on the other hand, may be quite appropriate for choosing classroom techniques.

In adapting these decision-making models for use in foreign language education, there are at least four general areas which must be examined in determining the alternatives: 1) objectives; 2) students; 3) available resources; and 4) ourselves.

Objectives

As Strasheim (142) puts it, "we foreign language types have never been 'niggardly' in our objectives," (p. 40). In general, language teachers not only strive to develop linguistic and communicative competence, some knowledge of and appreciation for different cultural patterns, growth in the affective domain, a desire to continue learning, and an awareness of foreign languages as adjuncts to careers, but they also often tack on cooking, art, history, geography, music, and/or literature. No matter how efficient one is, it is impossible to do justice to all these areas. As Taba says (146, p. 263), "There has always been more to learn than any student could learn in twice the time at his disposal" (p. 263).

A major problem is the domination of the textbook, for no single author can precisely fill the needs of any group of students. Wipf (162) criticizes the dominant role that printed instructional materials are currently assuming. Too many classrooms exist where students and teachers spend all their time trying to "cover" the text.

Even if the textbook serves only as the core of the course, choices still must be made. Lafayette (82) describes a solution—making thoughtful reductions of what is being covered by at least 25 percent, either by combining or eliminating units of study. The "core" material (the 75 percent remaining) is studied by everyone, but the time saved is used for various combinations of reinforcement and enrichment activities. Career exploration, art, etc., might be of interest only to small groups of students who could pursue these areas during the created "open-time." A particularly useful source in considering which parts of a text should remain in the core is Steiner's work (138) on selecting objectives (pp. 17–51).

Students

As we saw in the discussion of syllabi, objectives have been traditionally determined in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and culture points. However, as Lee (86) says, "It is surely wrong (i.e., uncreative and pedagogically inadvisable) to tackle problems of choice and simplification always from the language end ... What are the learners like, what are they interested in? This is fundamental" (p. 247).

In terms of learners' interests, the most easily available answers come from students themselves. In a survey of over 2,000 university students, "80.1% indicated their belief that competence in Spanish or Portuguese would be an asset in their work" (O'Connor, 106, p. 141). Randle (114) evaluated college level foreign language instruction by means of a questionnaire which revealed that "For the average student, emphasis on learning grammar and perfecting language skills has little lasting meaning when separated from the cultural context of the language" (pp. 367–68). The results of students' interests, as revealed by such surveys, must affect instructional choices. Lantolf (84), convinced that, "If something is to be meaningful for the student, it has to relate to his particular life space" (p. 245), recommends that the teacher regularly interview students to become acquainted with them on a personal level.

Nunney (105) makes a strong case for using cognitive style mapping to personalize language instruction and suggests that by using it to prescribe a variety of instructional programs, 90 percent of our students should be able to attain mastery levels of 90 percent. He states, however, that "a heterogeneous group of thirty students will need at least five or six alternative prescriptions of methods" (p. 13).

An experimental program at Kent State University "yielded results which demonstrated that there is a measurable interdependence between the level of achievement in beginning German classes and instructional adaptation to the learner's cognitive preferences" (Lepke, 87, p. 17). Cognitive maps were drawn by computer to describe each student's 1) basic cognitive responses to symbols; 2) cultural influences; 3) internalized patterns of learning and inferring; and 4) educational memory. Students were enrolled either in a teacher-centered, lock step section or in a self-paced, individualized program. Analysis of the cognitive maps of achievers and nonachievers in both types of classes showed the relationship between learning style and achievement.

Lepke (87) also describes an experiment at Tarrant County Junior College in Texas in which French students chose learning experiences in accord with their perceptions of how they preferred to learn. Not only did these students show significantly greater achievement than a control group, but the French program had a 60 percent enrollment increase in a single year.

Using a different basis for distinguishing among learning styles, Hosenfeld (68) gives a detailed plan for analyzing students' needs in terms of their level of conceptual development. She describes the steps necessary in adapting learning environments to meet students' immediate needs for varying degrees of structure as well as ways to encourage their conceptual growth. Zampogna et al. (163) used Hunt's Conceptual Level Paragraph Completion Instrument (available to researchers from the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario) to determine the self-responsibility and degree of interpersonal maturity of high school students of French and Spanish. All students were taught for one semester in a teacher-centered, unilaterally structured class and for one semester in an individualized one in which they cooperated with the teacher in planning the weekly study schedule. At the end of the year approximately 40 percent preferred the individual environment and felt that it was needed for their maximum achievement, 40 percent preferred and needed the traditional environment, and 15 percent *preferred* the individual setting but *felt a need* for the structured classroom. Comparison of the students' conceptual level and their preferred and needed modes of learning showed a statistically significant relationship.

Birckbichler and Omaggio (12) have compiled a list of fifty-six learning tasks and categorized them in a grid with eight learning problems (poor memory, too reflective, etc.) and six learning areas (listening, speaking, etc.). The teacher can use this chart to find a specific way to respond to a particular learning problem. For example, to deal with a student who tends to generalize too broadly, they suggest the following exercises to improve writing skills: 1) error categorizing (students list errors they have made in a composition according to categories such as spelling errors, verb forms, etc.); 2) dictation, and 3) dehydrated sentences.

Resources

Resources include materials (see Stages 3 and 6), the classroom and its equipment, and the time available for work with students.

One of the constraints teachers face in these days of unstable enrollments, especially on the secondary level, is the multilevel class in which beginning and advanced students, or even different levels of different languages, are combined. Gage (47) reports that many Oklahoma teachers in both rural and urban areas have been forced into such a difficult teaching situation, and are unable to find satisfactory ways to cope with it.

In attempting to study ways in which teachers in the field have dealt with such complex teaching situations, Brannon and Cox (16) gathered the following suggestions: 1) independent study with students meeting with the teacher at regular intervals to check on progress; 2) splitting the class period between two or more groups of learners; 3) an individualized approach; 4) offering various levels only every other year; 5) offering upper-level classes based on topics with which more than one level could work.

Strasheim (141) suggests that correspondence study for some students be arranged through a university extension office. She would offer any or all of the following as support services: 1) attaching the student to another class to provide a regular time and place for study; 2) giving assistance when needed, and 3) proctoring tests in the correspondence program.

The most practicable solution is likely to be the split period. In this situation Levy (88) insists on the necessity of creating a "group ambiance, a spirit of camaradrie and a sense of belonging among the students" (pp. 25–26). To do this he proposes culture and enrichment activities which involve the entire group along with some systematic use of peer teaching. It is also important to select varied and abundant materials for individual or small group use.

Fearing (42) describes a successful nongraded program designed to serve the large number of students in a Minnesota school who were "out of cycle" with the regular program. Students were assigned to groups according to their achievement in each skill. This writer's third- and fourth-year French students helped determine the areas they would concentrate on and are now grouped in nine different ways to allow for varied interests and abilities. For example, one conversation group prepares for a weekly session by studying a college text, another uses a first-year secondary text, and a third chooses a topic from a sample list. Everyone writes a weekly composition, but topics are assigned on the basis of individual personal experiences.

Ourselves

The importance of students' attitudes and values seems almost universally accepted, but what about those of the teachers? Early proponents of individualized instruction accurately predicted that many teachers would find it difficult to give up their "starring roles" in front of the classroom. Many did decide to give up such roles, but with misgivings and a resultant lack of success. Similarly, the teacher who is uncomfortable sharing personal feelings and values with students ought not to use such techniques merely because they are advocated by others. It may be that some teachers are highly successful using rote learning and verb paradigms, but adopt conversational strategies with which they are less successful, because of a need to conform. Altman (3) supports *teacher* individuality, saying that good teaching is good teaching, no matter what the method.

Savignon (128) has pointed out that what happens in the classroom is affected by the attitudes, values, and feelings of the teacher. De García and Reynolds (35) state, "One has only to recognize the ambivalent responses of teachers when presented with alternative modes of action to realize that values clarification has been a neglected dimension of professional development" (p. 651). They have devised an attitude survey which focuses on teachers' investigations into their own beliefs and degree of commitment to language teaching approaches.

In a more general way, Curwin and Fuhrmann (34) have adapted a variety of techniques that enable classroom teachers to examine their values. In one activity they ask the teacher to rank the following concepts, beginning with those which they value most highly:

freedom
respect
dominance
order
favoritism
chaos
concentration
alienation
rigidity
privacy
fairness
dogmatism
creativity
laughter
fear
self-direction
equality
love
orderliness
quiet
passivity
purposefulness

Next the teacher is asked to describe "classroom indicators" which might show the presence of the top three and the bottom three concepts. In the third step of the exercise, the teacher examines ways to insure that the most highly valued concepts are realized in his or her classroom and that the bottom three are not.

These kinds of exercises should prove especially effective in workshop settings and might contribute significantly to our individual abilities to make good decisions.

Summary

It appears that the profession is reaching toward major changes in curriculum, toward syllabi in which "students would learn to master and apply *creatively* a more limited corpus of material built around basic linguistic and cultural concepts instead of being run superficially through a vast and indigestible mass of language material" (Grittner, 58). This theme is apparent in the cognitive, communicative, and humanistic approaches examined in this chapter as well as in the more radical approaches. Even recent developments in the direct and audiolingual methodologies lean in this direction.

During the development of these new syllabi, classroom teachers are likely to be somewhat overwhelmed by the abundance of options available to them, particularly when, as a profession, we have abandoned all "party lines."

It is perhaps time to reflect a bit on where we have been during the last decade as we continue our search for new and better ways. We must keep our minds open to the best of the past as well as to the innovations the future has to offer. We no longer believe it necessary to commit ourselves to any single approach, but can choose freely what we think best for our own situations. But with this freedom of choice comes the attendant responsibility to choose as wisely as we possibly can.

Although the literature on decision making considered in this chapter cannot offer any algorithm—any "recipe"—for making choices, it does stress the importance of thoughtful examination of alternatives in terms of our objectives, our students, our resources and ourselves. "The influence of instructional quality on a program is obvious, but I believe it needs restating that in the final analysis it is the individual teacher, his or her commitment and creativity, who determines program success" (Schulz, 130).

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Stage 6

Print and non-print materials: Adapting for classroom use

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Introduction

Too often teachers have become addicted to the philosophy of a textbook author and have adopted certain methods and materials or new approaches simply because it is the thing to do. True, the textbook is basic and will often dictate the method of instruction, but this does not mean that teachers have to accept the package without making any changes. When we rent a furnished apartment, we rearrange the furniture to suit our tastes and needs as well as those of our immediate family; if the apartment is unfurnished, we provide our own furniture and our own décor. The textbook might also remind us of a tourist city map: we cannot visit all the places of interest in the short time available. Rather, we pause at some length at as many sights as possible, leaving others, perhaps less important, to another occasion.

The greatest problem facing language teachers today is the serious drop in enrollment. Our courses and methods are, in part, responsible. Although

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faced with outdated state or provincial guidelines with which textbooks must be congruent, we must not be shackled by such restrictions. As teachers we have never lacked either ingenuity or creativity.

There are those rare teachers capable of compiling a grammar outline for a language, using as illustrations solely the inscriptions on postage stamps from that country (Finlay, 50). There are thousands of teachers who accept the textbook as a guide but successfully manage to inject into it vitality and motivational interest which alter the picture. Taillefer (152), for example, took a unit from a traditional grammar textbook and provided a wealth of exercises which brought interest and "life" into an otherwise boring lesson. There are very few teachers who do not adapt print and non-print materials to suit their own personalities as well as their students' interests and learning styles.

According to Postman and Weingartner (134), "in the learning environment, there are at least four critical elements: the learner, the teacher, the 'to-be-learned,' and the strategies for learning. For this environment to fulfill its function, these elements must serve, complement and derive meaning from each other" (pp. 51–52). "Today's classroom," stresses Papalia (126), "must be a multidimensional environment where learning takes place and students are encouraged to realize their own potential. A learning environment encompasses a series of relationships between the student and himself, the student and other students, the student and the teacher, the student and the curriculum materials, and the student and the method of instruction. How these relationships are cultivated will in large part determine their effectiveness" (p. 28).

What follows is a limited compendium of suggestions by eminent colleagues who tried a particular technique and, on finding it successful, shared it in print, in various books or professional publications. "Share" is the keyword, and if a number of these ideas filter into the classroom from time to time, then the efforts of these colleagues have not been in vain.

Injecting the fun element in the learning process

It is difficult to disagree with the contention of Latorre and Baeza (91) that "games have long been accepted in language teaching as a means of relieving the students of much of the strain which results from work demanding concentrated attention" (p. 45). Lee (92) agrees that "language teachers in particular have constantly to search for means of securing variety and can ill afford to neglect whatever language-teaching possibilities games offer" (p. 1). But it is important, as Latorre and Baeza stress, that "in view of their appeal to the various types of learner, games should have a definite linguistic aim along with their function as a welcome change of activity" (p. 46). Phillips (132) concurs that keeping the fun in learning, capitalizing on the appeal of the present in order to achieve the long-range goals of language learning, is the motivational and instructional task of the foreign-language teacher. "Why do pattern drills have to be done exactly as the texts present them?" she asks.

She suggests that a few minor variations can make them more fun while still retaining their value as a practice exercise: teachers may insert names of students for those in the text, use gestures to sustain attention to meaning as well as pattern, or make the sample sentences more relevant by changing the predicate to reflect students' life-styles.

Maiguashca (98) identifies three deficiencies in language drills:

1. the language register is often incorrect
2. structures are often incomplete and/or meaningless
3. the stimuli are often artificial.

She suggests contextualization of drills, a view also strongly held by Buckby (26).

To recall or expand basic vocabulary, Mollica (112) suggests crossword and other puzzles such as mazes, scrambled letters, scrambled words, and word-search puzzles. Bressan (22) prefers the crossword puzzle for the obvious contribution it can make from a linguistic point of view. "A carefully graded selection of crosswords in order of complexity will contribute to the acquisition of new words and phrases as well as the consolidation of previous knowledge through repetition" (p. 94). Bressan classifies direct-definition clues into the following main headings:

1. **Generic** e.g., Clue: *Prénom* Answer: *Ils*
2. **Synonymic** C: *Tout naturel* A: *Inné*
3. **Antonymic** C: *Pas fictif* A: *Réel*
4. **Allusive** C: *Echappe au rêveur* A: *Réalité*
5. **Allusive-negatory** C: *Bien de gens ne connaissent que sa marge.* A: *Loi.*
6. **Definitory** C: *Dont rien ne vient troubler la quiétude.* A: *Sereine.*
7. **Descriptive** C: *Recueillent des malheureux.* A: *Asiles.*
8. **Punny** C: *Il avait vraiment la bosse du théâtre!* A: *Polichinelle.*
9. **"In" clue** C: *Lettres d'amour.* A: *Am.*

Latorre and Baeza (91) point out that "the clues are central to the drilling objective of the crossword, since most of the information the student gets for doing the exercise is found in them. The clue is to the crossword exercise almost what the prompt is to the old pattern drill: it is the stimulus that keeps the drill going. As such, there is no place here for ambiguity, deliberate or otherwise. On the contrary, clarity is essential. By reading the clue, the student must know with a fair degree of accuracy which word is required, since in most cases he is being confronted with a linguistic problem well within his capabilities and knowledge" (p. 51).

Suppose that teachers have taught the names of some domestic and wild animals. A crossword puzzle may provide a pleasant way of recalling them. At an introductory level, teachers may wish to *show* a drawing or a picture of the animal and call out the instructions as if playing a bingo game: e.g., "*Verticalement*, 2," etc. Teachers may wish to offer definitions for each animal. In this case, a definitory clue might be: "*grand mammifère à crinière, plus grand que l'âne.*" At an advanced level, teachers may point out that, for more picturesque speech, names of animals are often used for imagery. For this same word, teachers may provide an incomplete idiom as well as its meaning as the definition: "*Cela ne se trouve pas dans le pas d'un ________: c'est une chose difficile à trouver.*" (Mollica, 118).

A number of textbooks now incorporate crossword puzzles and other game elements as an integral part of the exercises (Da Silva, 39, 40; Merlonghi et al., 102; Mollica, 119; Wright et al., 162); publishers such as National Textbook Company make available a number of games on ditto masters or in booklets.

But the fun element should certainly not be confined to crossword puzzles. Da Silva (42) suggests that games, most particularly those that appear on television, work well. Since students already know the ground rules, they can plunge into "What's My Line," "I've Got a Secret," "The Price is Right," "To Tell The Truth," etc.

There are a number of other puzzles which can involve students either individually or in groups. Mollica (112) singles out mathematical puzzles, legal cases, and the detective puzzle. Danesi (37) concurs with Mollica's two-component model for using games and activities in language pedagogy, namely, a *lexical component* containing material suitable for recall and/or expansion of vocabulary, and a *language interaction component* which consists of activities designed to promote and encourage the use of the language. But he adds *grammatical and stylistic* components to the pedagogical model for mathematical puzzles. Thus, mathematical puzzles may be utilized for morphological and syntactic review and/or instruction, as well as for stylistic analysis since they may be written in both dialogue and narrative form.

A number of books are designed to provide a wealth of ideas for classroom games (Crawshaw, 34; Hubp, 75, 76; Schmidt, 144), but teachers should ensure that the element of fun is an integral part of language learning and not separated from it.

Identifying and bringing out cultural characteristics in the textbook

It is difficult not to concur with Valdés (156): "The perennial lament that cultural content is not available because the administration has chosen such a textbook is not valid. A few weeks of hard work in planning the introductory second language course can provide the teacher with an integrative approach which has as its main objective the teaching of language in its sociocultural context and, most important, as a system which once begun can be revised and improved each year" (p. 358). For Weiss (158), language teachers are also culture teachers. Just as they present the structure of the language factually and impartially, so should they present the culture of that country objectively, dispassionately, and accurately. Teachers should attempt to dispel from the English-speaking student's mind the stereotyped image they may have of the people whose language they are learning. Too often Italians have been portrayed as spaghetti-eating, Chianti-drinking people, rowing a gondola in Venice's canals and endlessly singing *"O sole mio!"* (Mollica, 115). Too often Germans have been presented in dirndl dress celebrating Oktoberfest with floods of beer (Koch, 85). Spaniards with throbbing guitars, clicking castanets, swirling and alluring dresses, and tapping heels (Gold, 63)—Frenchmen with black berets, five o'clock stubbles, a red bottle of wine under their arms (Koch, 85)—all of these conceptions are derived from loosely interpreted facts rather than from direct contact with the nationality concerned. One thinks of the Father's protests against his Step-daughter's conception of him in Pirandello's (133) *Six Characters in Search of an Author*, "It would be an atrocious injustice to judge us by one action alone, as if all our existence were summoned up in that one deed" (pp. 232–33). Do not teachers often promote certain biases and clichés? The travel and tourist industry constantly reinforces these favored images through the visual stimuli of posters and brochures. Taylor (154) suggests that teachers model their interest in current affairs by being well informed; students should be encouraged to work on projects that de-emphasize folkloristic themes; teachers should select textbooks that present a "balanced diet," with regard not only to culture but also to geography. Pfister and Borzilleri (130) provide an evaluation design that will help identify the most suitable text for cultural studies. Both Becker-Cantarino (9) and Mollica (112) suggest a series of activities and quizzes that impart information about a country's geography.

The task of bringing out cultural elements from the textbook falls mainly on the teacher. The cultural content and connotations of the words and idioms selected will have to be made clear to the student. Where words seem to correspond lexically in the *denotation*, they may diverge considerably in their *connotation* or in the emotional association which they arouse (Rivers, 136).

The mere mention of such things as wine at table, an examination, or whistling at a football game—frequent occurrences—involves cultural differences which, if ignored, are understood by the student in his native patterns, and are therefore misunderstood. Wine at table might be understood by the Canadian or the American student to imply a special occasion, when it does not have that implication to an Italian.

The works of Miller et al. (104, 105, 106) are excellent sources in contrasting words and ways of living. A section in each of their culture capsules, "Let's relate it," makes the series even more useful and suitable for classroom activities. Papalia's (123, 124, 125, 128) work with culture assimilators is also of significant importance.

Sexism in language should also be pointed out. French, like many other languages, is as sexist as English. It designates the masculine gender as the norm and the feminine as the deviation, and words denoting high-prestige roles are almost always masculine—*le professeur, l'écrivain, le docteur, l'auteur*—which can sometime result in bizarre statements such as *Le professeur est enceinte!* Lord (97) also points out that certain tasks dealing with child care exist only in the feminine: there are *ménagères* (but not *ménagers*), *sages-femmes* (but not *sages-hommes*), *puéricultrices* (but not *puériculteurs*); and she tells of Thérèse Laliberté who refers to a class in which girls outnumber boys as *les étudiantes!* Stern (149) deplores the fact that sexism is perpetuated in textbooks by both men and women. She examined twenty-five foreign language textbooks published after 1970 and found that each perpetuated the sex role stereotyping prevalent in American and foreign cultures. The fact is that language merely reflects social behavior and history and is not the cause of it. The problem of women's status will be solved not by dismantling the language but by changing the social structure.

For Mead (101), "foreign language study is a key to the understanding of another way of life as well as the best means of ending one's own cultural parochialism" (p. 3). To achieve this, Knop (84) discusses three techniques and their advantages and disadvantages for teaching cultures: the culture capsule, the culture cluster, and the culture assimilator.

> Learning about culture helps students become aware of another way of life, often creates in them an interest about that other way of life, and ideally, develops acceptance and even appreciation of those differences. Learning about culture is a short-range goal in the language, whereas a cultural fact or insight may be acquired in just one class period. At the same time, cultural learning is long-lasting: students may forget how to conjugate a verb but they usually retain knowledge and interests developed in cultural study. For all of these reasons, culture is a valuable part of foreign language study (Knop, 84, p. 54)

The dialogue

Dialogues "should cover major areas of similarity and contrast between the two cultures in as wide a variety of situations as is feasible but without becoming pedantic and unreal" (Rivers, 136, p. 275). Authors should make sure that dialogues are constructed around an experience compatible with the age and interests of the students; the language therefore, should not be pedantic or unreal. It becomes the task of the teacher to clarify some of the cultural content, otherwise students will assume that what is said and done have exact counterparts in their own culture. The opening dialogue of basic textbooks generally begins with greetings and queries about one's health. For example, "*Buon giorno. Come sta?*" is a form of greeting as well as a concern about one's health. The use of the pronoun *Lei*, understood in the verb form *sta*, indicates the degree of intimacy. The inevitable concomitant of teaching the forms of address is teaching the social customs and situations which determine the use of one form rather than another. The very rules for using the forms of address afford cultural insights as to the psychology of the Italian people, their attitudes of respect for elders and strangers, their sensitivity to nuances of speech reflecting family relationships, degrees of intimacy, and differences of age and social status.

Rivers (136) suggests that after students have learned dialogues thoroughly, they use these freely in communication situations contrived in the classroom. If students are well trained to act out prepared dialogues, they may eventually be asked to act out "situation" dialogues which may be written to supplement or complement those presented in the basic program. Humor should not be discounted in this activity, and often a teacher is able to find dialogues which ingeniously combine humor/language/culture. Leonora Fabbri's (48) anecdote on the fussy barman ideally combines all three elements.

Il barista pignolo

Un signore entra in un bar e chiede al barista:
Cliente: Vorrei un bicchiere di vino, per favore
Barista: Bianco a rosso?
Cliente: Rosso.
Barista: Dolce o secco?
Cliente: Secco.
Barista: Locale o di marca?
Cliente: Locale.
Barista: Di fiasco o di bottiglia?
Cliente: Non importa. Se sapevo che ci voleva tanto tempo avrei ordinato un caffé.
Barista: Allora vuole un caffé?
Cliente: Ma sí, mi dia un caffé.
Barista: Nero o macchiato?
Cliente: Nero!
Barista: Ristretto o alto?
Cliente: Ristretto.
Barista: Corretto o semplice?
A questo punto il signore scappa disperato.

From this dialogue the student will have been given an insight into ordering wine (*bianco:* white; *rosso:* red; *dolce:* sweet; *secco:* dry; *locale:*

local; *di marca:* of high quality; *di fiasco:* from a flask; *di bottiglia:* from a bottle), as well as choosing the variety of coffee which is available (*nero:* black; *macchiato:* with a drop of milk; *ristretto:* very strong; *alto:* of medium strength; *corretto:* laced with spirits; *semplice:* regular). If the dialogue appears on a transparency, students may more easily act it out, for the transparency will act as a giant cue card.

Teachers are encouraged to use auditory and reading dialogues as well. Blume (13, 14, 15, 16), Giusto (62), and Levy (94) have prepared a series of dialogues which can easily be used to complement any basic text. Arranged in a carefully graded sequence from Series A to Series F, the dialogues aid the student either in mastering auditory comprehension or in interpreting the written language.

Series A includes ten situations, each consisting of a setting and one line of dialogue followed by four possible responses. The student selects and writes the appropriate responses. Series B also presents just one line of dialogue following the setting. However, this time the student responds by writing one dialogue line of his own. In each of the remaining series, the number of original sentences to be written by the student increases. Finally in Series F, each of the twenty situations requires the student to write five lines of dialogue. This type of exercise has often appeared in Regents Exams (Cascarelli, 30; Kendris and Newmark, 82, 83).

Di Pietro (45) suggests that although the dialogues found in textbooks may indeed lend an air of credence by attaching a likely cultural environment or situation to the points of structure being covered, they remain, nonetheless, stylized. Students called upon to play the part of a hotel clerk or customer in a pharmacy may find no reason to associate their personal desires or needs with those of the fictionalized characters. A contrived conversation, no matter how skillfully designed, bypasses the stage of personal motivation which each of us feels before we decide to speak at all. Di Pietro suggests a number of protocols which may be used to show attentiveness in a conversation and a series of verbal strategies which the speaker can execute in those settings where the outcome is not predetermined by social constraints. He feels that the dialogue with options is a particularly valuable device for language teachers and stresses that it does not require a deep understanding of linguistics or methodology to be conceived and utilized in the classroom.

Supplementary materials: Time, interest, choice

Successful foreign language teachers must consider students' needs and learning styles before selecting content and methods of instruction. They should choose activities expressed in the cone of experience, as conceived by Dale (36), which begin with students' concrete experiences and move to abstract learning (Figure 1). "Although the bands of the cone interlap and blend into one another," Papalia (127) points out, "they are an aid in indicating graphically that successful foreign language teachers attempt to select curricular activities moving from "doing and observing to verbal symbols" (p. 5). Research findings on learning support the point that students seem to learn better when they are "doing" things or when the materials are pictures rather than words.

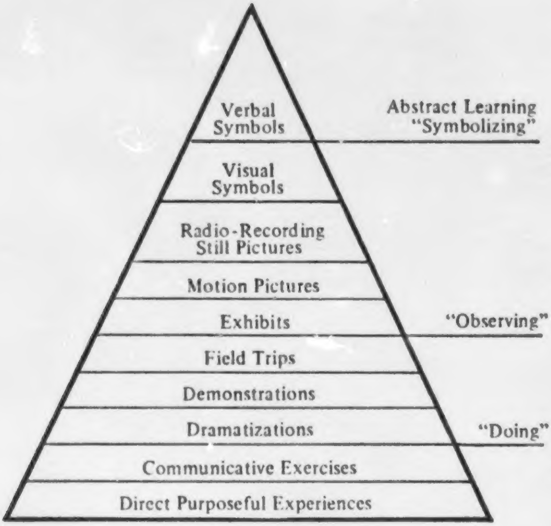

Verbal Symbols
Abstract Learning "Symbolizing"
Visual Symbols
Radio-Recording Still Pictures
Motion Pictures
Exhibits
"Observing"
Field Trips
Demonstrations
Dramatizations
"Doing"
Communicative Exercises
Direct Purposeful Experiences

Fig. 1 Dale's cone of experience *(36)*

One of the problems immediately facing teachers is the time factor. The next problem is the interest factor. "There are many things which interest my students! Which materials should I choose?" The fact is that ancillary materials should be an *integral* part of the program; these items should *complement* and *supplement* the basic textbook. In drilling interrogative forms, why offer a series of boring exercises when a game such as "What's My Line?" may very well bring out most interrogative words. Why spend hours *explaining* a cultural trait, when a photograph may do the job in a fraction of the time?

The solution is to *plan ahead.* Teachers should mark in their textbooks the type of activity which either substitutes or modifies some of the exercises. Proper filing of materials—for quick access—will facilitate the task.

The experience has generally been that instead of losing time to "cover course content," teachers actually gain time!

Audio- and audiovisual aids

Songs

There is general agreement with Zola and Sandvoss (166) that songs represent not only valid material for language study but, also, a valid medium for language learning. Mollica (112, 115) suggests that songs be sung in the very first language class to teach pronunciation and stress. A note generally represents a syllable, and since every note must be sung carefully in order to stay in tune, words cannot be stressed incorrectly. If they are, students will be singing out of tune. At the beginning stage, it is important that teachers choose a song whose melody is already familiar to students. For this purpose, foreign-language versions of English popular songs might be chosen initially. Students, already familiar with the tune, will then focus their attention on the lyrics. Every culture has, however, a rich repertoire of songs, and teachers should gradually de-emphasize those translated into the foreign language and introduce students to authentic songs of the country whose language is being learned.

In addition to helping "effectively to teach pronunciation and, incidentally, comprehension, grammar, vocabulary constructions and background knowledge" (Gelman, 59, p. 13), songs give pleasure and have authentic aesthetic value.

Songs ordinarily provide both literary and colloquial expressions, which is evidence that they may be more than just "fun" materials. "If the words of the songs are selected with an effort to further develop the learner's cognition and to add relevant vocabulary items, the songs become valuable teaching materials in themselves. For an enthusiastic teacher, it does not require much time to locate songs which contain grammatical structures identical to those being taught in class: everyday expressions, dialogue-style 'question and answer' songs, narration (or ballad) style songs, or even those intended to accompany some motor skills" (Jolly, 80, p. 13). By careful selection the teacher can introduce the song at almost any level of instruction; hence one criterion for using it: adaptability (Brown, 25).

Bartle (8) is convinced that "songs are a definite advantage in memorization of phrase constructions. They are more easily learned, and tend to 'stick' longer than straight-out grammatical examples" (p. 11). Elliot (47) illustrates this conviction by pointing out that, in the carol "*D'ou viens-tu, bergère?*," the refrain in the form of a question asks that one repeat "*Qu'as-tu vu, bergère, qu'as-tu vu?*" thus leading the student to ask questions correctly in the *passé composé.* Jolly (80), however, cautions that "songs adopted for use in the language classroom should not contain unfamiliar grammatical structures, nor grammar or vocabulary items not within easy association of the material already presented" (p. 14). Brown (25) stresses that the song has many potentialities as a pedagogical device and that song-poems may also be studied as part of the oral tradition in literature, especially as it relates to the poetry of the Middle Ages and to folklore.

Songs are useful for presenting "cultural" similarities and differences. Teachers of Italian may wish to compare "Downtown" with its version "*Ciao, ciao.*" In the English version, Petula Clark suggests that when you are alone and life is making you lonely, you can always go downtown. It is there—North America's center of excitement—that you forget all your troubles. But where do you go if you are in Italy? To the sea (*al mar*), to the beautiful unpolluted beaches (*spiaggia limpida*) where you meet your old friend (*vecchi amici*) under a hot sun (*sole caldo*).

Ritorno *al mar*
dove ho sognato con te
e sembra dirmi:
"Ciao, ciao, ciao."
Rivedo ancor
i *vecchi amici* che ho
e mi salutano:
"Ciao, ciao."
E sulla *spiaggia limpida*
non è cambiato niente.
Sotto il *sole caldo*
io ti cerco tra la gente, etc.

Perhaps the song gives a stereotyped image of Italy, but a comparative study will show that each song presents scenes peculiar to its culture.

Imaginative teachers can invent their own lyrics to suit a particular situation. Judy Glass (Glendale Secondary School, Hamilton, Ontario) has incorporated a number of reflexive verbs in what one may call "*La journée d'un étudiant,*" to be sung to the tune of "Ta-ra-ra-boom–di-ay."

1 Quand il fait très, très beau,
Je me réveille très tôt,
Et je me lève tout de suite,
Puis je me lave très vite.
2 Puis je me rase aussi,
Et puis je fais mon lit.
Alors je m'habille vite,
Et je descends tout de suite.
3 A la cuisine je vais,
Je prends un verre de lait.
J'ai toujours très, très faim,
Alors je mange du pain.
4 Puis je me brosse les dents,
Et vite j'embrasse Maman.
Puis pour l'école je pars,
A huit heures moins le quart.
5 J'arrive à huit heures vingt,
Et là je travaille bien.
Et quand l'école finit,
Je pars avec mon amie.
6 J'arrive chez moi très vite
Je veux manger tout de suite.
Nous mangeons le dîner,
Dans la salle à manger.

7 A dix heures et demie
Je dis toujours "Bonne nuit."
Puis je me couche tout de suite,
Et je m'endors très vite.
—Courtesy of Judy Glass

Glass has a second set of lyrics which stress the *passé composé* of both transitive and intransitive verbs. Jolly (80) suggests that if "the songs are presented with attention-catching visual aids to strengthen their value, the effectiveness of the songs as teaching aids can be enhanced even further. The students' response to the use of songs under these circumstances would not represent mere mechanical, drill-style repetition, but rather active participation in the pleasant flow of melody" (p. 13).

Radio

Radio provides an excellent source for developing the aural skills. *The French Review* has published a number of articles on the subject. Grigsby (65) writes of his experience in a pilot course in which radio served as virtually the exclusive source of learning. The aim of the course was to improve "third-year college students' understanding of French spoken at a speed which would attract and hold the attention of educated, busy persons with native fluency" (p. 557). Lister (95) tells of a similar experiment conducted in Canada and provides a detailed description of various pedagogical activities. Grigsby and Lister focus mainly on newscasts, but Howlett (74) stresses also the use of commercials to develop listening comprehension.

Jakobsh (77) adds another dimension to the above uses—radio plays. He notes that "most notable literary radio plays are quite recent; therefore, both language and context are such that they may be called relevant for those learning to speak, as well as for studying literature. Although in length they may vary considerably, plays are generally much shorter than dramas, close in length and structure to a one-act play or a short story, and averaging somewhat less than one hour of broadcasting time" (p. 40). Jakobsh provides some pedagogical applications and points out that in elementary language classes radio plays can also serve as reading material. Vocabulary, idioms, and syntax are those of conversational language, and are therefore quite simple and those which students should meet at this stage.

Photographs

For Scanlan (142) the "pedagogical possibilities offered by photographs are as limitless or as restricted as the ability and the enthusiasm of the teacher and of the students. They unquestionably open up vast areas of discussion, but optimum use of them requires preparation and forethought on the part of the instructor as well as good will and co-operation on the part of the learner" (p. 420).

The most readily available source of photographs is the textbook. Unfortunately, in some cases, photos become mainly ornaments which authors and publishers hope will enhance the esthetic appeal of the book to teachers. In many instances, photographs are drawn mainly from Tourist Offices and tend, naturally, to give a tourist-like picture of the country. Rivers (136) encourages teachers to collect pictorial material to illustrate their lessons from the wealth of existing magazines and newspapers. In doing so, however, some caution must be exercised: pictures should depict natural situations, life as it really is; illustrative material caricaturing the life of the people or presenting a false cliché should not be used.

Boyd (20) concurs that pictures are often excellent stimuli in conversation classes for students to ask questions of one another. If the aim is to stress speaking skills, pictures need not come from the milieu of a country whose language is being learned. For this purpose, photographs which appear in North American newspapers or magazines are also ideal. One excellent source may be the volume *The Best of Life* (Scherman, 143). It provides a variety of illustrations which, if cut and pasted on colored art paper (and laminated for durability), may be used to promote discussion and conversation. Boyd (20) suggests that students be given a picture about which they prepare two to four questions. They then ask these questions and their partners respond. The pair then reverses the procedure. Teachers can thus evaluate the students' ability to ask and answer questions based on a particular theme.

Anthony Bruculere's photograph which appeared in *The Best of Life* (Figure 2) is an ideal example for this type of activity. Da Silva (41, p. 234) suggests questions which focus directly on the photograph ("*¿Quiénes serán estas tres personas? ¿Cuántos años cree Ud. que tendrán? ¿Dónde están? ¿A quién quiere más la chica? ¿Cuántos detalles observa Ud. en esta fotografía?*"), but the photograph may also stimulate a discussion on morals and values, personal opinions, and an identification with the three young people themselves. The following may be some suitable questions:

- What thoughts, do you think, are crossing the minds of each of the young persons depicted in the picture?
- What is your opinion of the young lady? If you were the boy in the middle and knew what was happening, how would you react?
- Should the girl and the boy reveal their feelings to the boy in the center? Justify your answer.

Other photographs may be used to illustrate cultural differences on which dialogues can be created.

Scanlan (142) believes that in working with a photograph, teachers and students should conceive of it as but one small piece of an infinitely large puzzle made up of countless interlocking pieces. In fact, Hajdu (66) suggests that teachers start with a picture and then cut it in half so that each half makes little sense alone. For example, she cut in two a picture of a glum-

Photo: Anthony Bruculere

Fig. 2

looking man and his broken television set. After dividing the class, she showed each half a different part of the picture and then let students work in pairs to tell each other what they saw. A single picture, which formerly gave only one or two students an opportunity to speak, is now a conversation stimulus for the entire class.

Scanlan (142) proposes a number of activities with pictures:

1 "Feed" students the necessary lexical items for the questions they might ask about a picture, perhaps writing each word on the board after the student has properly pronounced it and used it correctly. This approach lessens the problems of faulty pronunciation which are usually due to the student's incorrect reading.
2 Distribute a list of the vocabulary items which are necessary or most useful in discussing the photo in advance so that the oral exercise flows more smoothly.
3 Teachers may wish to distribute or display the picture in advance, provide students with dictionaries, and have them prepare the necessary vocabulary on their own.
4 Students may be asked to describe the photo (orally or in written form) to someone else, who supposedly has not seen it.

Boswell (19) offers a slight variation by asking students of all levels to choose a picture of interest to them. They are to attach it to a sheet of 8½ x 11 paper which will fit in their notebook. On the back they are to describe in French what the picture is about or what it suggests, underlining any words which they look up in the dictionary. He suggests the following assignments by level for the first picture: Level 2 will write 3–5 sentences; Level 3 will write 5–8; Level 4 will write 8–10 and Level 5 will write 10–15 sentences. He then marks the assignment for free composition. He stresses his practice of never marking too severely since he wants to encourage self-expression in the target language regardless of errors.

Visuals, cautions Ziegler (165), must be selected according to their language relevancy. Arendt (5) applauds the use of visuals in the language classroom. "By their very introduction various visuals add variety to learning and attract by their novelty. The visuals remove the teacher from stage center or replace a text for a time, offering a welcome change" (p. 53). Taggart (151) points out that there is a great deal to be done in this area. "The planning, production and use of pictorial materials for second-language teaching constitutes a rich field for creative experimentation on the part of course designers, methodologists, audio-visual specialists and especially . . . teachers" (p. 93).

Cartoons and comic strips

It is surprising that very few textbooks contain humor. The situation is gradually being remedied, but in the meantime, students may be given an introduction to the target language's humor by posting carefully chosen cartoons, comic strips, and anecdotes on the bulletin board. Cartoons are extremely useful in the teaching of a language since they may help stimulate conversation or provide a point of departure for oral and/or written compositions. If a number of cartoons is available, the teacher may decide to post a different one each day, thus providing "Today's smile" in the target language. Fowles (51) points out that cartoons can be had fairly cheaply—for the price of a magazine—and suggests that they be mounted for class use. "Not being ephemeral like a joke or a sight gag," says Fowles, "they can be studied closely. They usually have a line of dialogue which can be learned, and a picture which goes some little ways towards showing the conditions under which the language is used. And like all humor, they are innately intriguing or at least diverting" (p. 156).

In addition to increasing cultural knowledge, Mollica (110, 115) suggests that cartoons be used:

1 to provide humor in a general way
2 to reinforce the teaching of both morphology and syntax
3 to teach vocabulary and illustrate idiomatic expressions

4 to satirize current or topical news events
5 to satirize styles and ways of dressing
6 to provide humor on a given theme or topic.

Cartoons whose caption has been deleted will also provide a source for oral or written work.

1 They may be used for oral testing.
2 Students may be asked to provide suitable captions. This should not be too difficult since the cartoon itself will suggest most of the vocabulary. Teachers may decide to post these on the bulletin board as well, thus rewarding students for their work and encouraging them to continue.
3 Cartoons may be transferred onto a transparency with the original caption on an overlay. Students will be curious to compare their caption with the original.
4 Cartoons with three or more sequential vignettes are ideal for short oral or written compositions. Teachers may: ask a series of questions, the answers to which form the basis of the vignette description; ask students to indicate some of the vocabulary and idioms; ask students to give an oral description; or ask students to write a twenty-five to thirty-word composition based on the sequence of the vignettes.

Quite a number of articles has been written on the last suggestion. Rollet (137) suggests that comic strips (in French, *bandes dessinées*, commonly abbreviated *B.D.*) help students express themselves as spontaneously and as freely as possible in the target language. Montredon (120) opts for the humorous comic strip, for it can be better understood by a foreign observer, and to familiarize oneself with the humor of another country is to go to the very heart of its culture. For Brooks (23), humor occupies an important place in the teaching of culture, so much so, that he lists it among the matters which appear central and critical in the analysis of culture.

In an effort to encourage North American scholars and teachers to exploit the pedagogical potential of comics, Brown (24) proposes a theoretical framework for comics in the foreign language classroom. He reviews the major areas in which scholars in France formulated a pedagogy of comics and provides a short bibliography of the most recent studies. Most of the methodologies so far devised center on pedagogical applications of comic strips to the teaching of language, culture, and literature (André, 2; Fresnault-Deruelle, 53; Friedman, 56; Gauthier, 58; Gillon, 61).

Rollet and Tremblay (138, 139) provide exercises which guide students and help them to describe the individual pictures, to make links between them, and to produce original dialogue. Both Montredon (120) and Rollet (137) have suggested a series of innovative exercises which focus on language learning and stress both oral and written skills. A short inventory of exercises is offered by Marsadié and Saint-Perron (100) while Larochelle

(90) provides comic strips for the learning environment, discussing theoretical information in detail and suggesting creative exercises for their use.

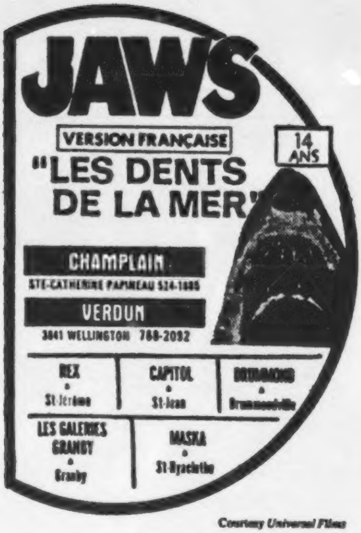
Personal teaching experience has shown that cartoons or comic strips can be a good stimulating and motivational force in language learning. Provided that they are used wisely, sparingly, and effectively, they can become an indispensable tool in the acquisition of language and culture.

Advertisements

Advertisements from current magazines and newspapers may be both entertaining and instructive. They may be used for testing comprehension, as a means to expand students' basic vocabulary, as a basis for translation exercises, and, on occasion, as a means of supplying insight into the culture of the target language. In addition, a host of activities can be created to provide ample opportunities for language interaction. Easily found in daily newspapers or magazines, the advertisement may be cut out and mounted so that it will stand out better, or be quickly transferred onto a transparency. Loew (96) suggests using the opaque projector for this type of activity. Whatever the method, the aim is to ensure that students are able to see the visual material as clearly as possible. The teacher can then proceed with a varied series of activities depending upon the linguistic ability of the students.

Examining various movie advertisements, Mollica (111) proposes a series of activities to reinforce language skills and provide an insight into the target language's culture. One of these exercises is the matching of movie titles in English with those in the target language. It is obvious that a literal translation is often impossible and that, to overcome this problem, the plot of the movie plays a major role in determining the translation of the title. *True Grit* became *Cento dollari per lo sceriffo* in Italian since one hundred dollars was offered Rooster Cogburn (played by John Wayne) by Mattie Ross (Kim Darby) to track down her father's killers. Pietro Germi's *Signore e Signori* (literally, *Ladies and Gentlemen*), a hilarious satire dealing with the Italians' sexual mores, became *The Birds, the Bees and the Italians.* Universal Films's *Jaws* became *Les Dents de la mer* (Figure 3). Both titles convey a similar idea, but the French is more colorful and the imagery is accentuated rather than lost in the translation. The English title, emphasized by a picture of a shark, jaws open wide, ready to tear and gnaw human beings, suggests a gory image. *Les Dents de la mer*, on the other hand, conjures up an image of vastness (*la mer*) ready to engulf—not as gory an image as *Jaws* but nevertheless a cruel and frightful one. And the monosyllabic words which make up the title give the impression of a chewing effect (*les/dents/de/la/mer/*). The corresponding French word for a literal translation, *mâchoire*, would have been meaningless and quite ineffective as a movie title.

Advertisements are well suited to test students' comprehension of the


JAWS
VERSION FRANÇAISE
"LES DENTS DE LA MER"
14 ANS
CHAMPLAIN
STE-CATHERINE PAPINEAU 524-1685
VERDUN
3841 WELLINGTON 768-2092
REX St-Jérôme
CAPITOL St-Jean
DRUMMOND Drummondville
LES GALERIES GRANBY Granby
MASKA St-Hyacinthe
Courtesy Universal Films

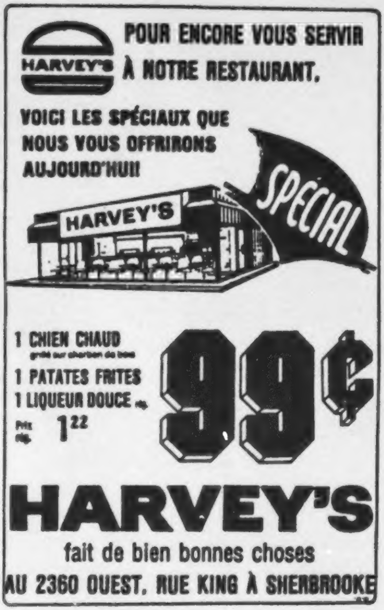

HARVEY'S
POUR ENCORE VOUS SERVIR À NOTRE RESTAURANT.
VOICI LES SPÉCIAUX QUE NOUS VOUS OFFRIRONS AUJOURD'HUI!
HARVEY'S
SPÉCIAL
1 CHIEN CHAUD
grillé sur charbon de bois
1 PATATES FRITES
1 LIQUEUR DOUCE rég.
Prix rég. 1.22
99¢
HARVEY'S
fait de bien bonnes choses
AU 2360 OUEST, RUE KING À SHERBROOKE

Fig. 3 *Jaws* advertisement

Fig. 4 Harvey's advertisement

visual material, to personalize questions, and to involve students in general activities on a given topic. For example, Figure 4 will illustrate the technique.

Comprehension
1 Comment s'appelle ce restaurant?
2 Où est-ce qu'il se trouve?
3 Qu'est-ce qu'on peut acheter chez Harvey's?
4 Combien d'argent épargne-t-on aujourd'hui?
5 Qu'est-ce que le prix de 99 cents comprend?
6 Enumérez ce qu'on peut acheter pour 99 cents.
Personal questions
1 Quand allez-vous chez Harvey's?
2 Pourquoi préférez-vous le restaurant Harvey's?
3 A quelle distance de votre maison se trouve le restaurant Harvey's?
4 Comment y allez-vous? (à pied, à bicyclette, en auto, en autobus).
Activities
1 *Making a TV commercial.* Imaginez qu'on vient de vous demander de

préparer une annonce pour la télé. Essayez de persuader aux téléspectateurs d'aller dîner chez Harvey's.

2 *Making a newspaper ad.* Imaginez qu'on vous demande d'écrire une annonce pour le quotidien de votre ville. Préparez une annonce pour le restaurant Harvey's et illustrez-la.

Linguistic/Cultural Curiosities (Here, Canadianismes)

1 *spécial:* signifie valeur exceptionnelle article recommandé et ne s'emploie pas au féminin. Le mot est un canadianisme et n'est pas reçu dans le bon usage de la francophonie (Bélisle, 10).
2 *patates frites:* des pommes de terre frites. L'expression est un canadianisme (Bélisle, 10).
3 *liqueur douce:* boisson gazeuse. Ces mots sont des anglicismes (*soft drink*) et il serait généralement souhaitable de les faire disparaître de la langue (Bélisle, 10).
4 In the address, students should note that the direction precedes the name of the street (cf., King Street West) and that the direction (*ouest*) is followed by a comma.

The *curiosités linguistiques/culturelles* are [illegible] excellent way of making students aware that language changes constantly and that sometimes one language influences another. Here, language has direct appeal and accentuates local color.

Careful attention must be paid, however, to advertisements "translated" from another language. The results may be disastrous or hilariously funny. Hill (67) tells us that General Motors was puzzled by the lack of enthusiasm the introduction of its Chevrolet Nova automobile aroused among its Puerto Rican dealers. The reason, it turned out, was simple: *Nova* means *star* in Spanish, but when spoken it sounds like "*no va,*" which means "it doesn't go." The company quickly changed the car's name to *Caribe* and it sold nicely.

It is interesting to put an English slogan in another language, and Collins (31) proposes such an exercise. Do you recall the Esso slogan? The English "Put a tiger in your tank" stresses the place when potential strength is to be found. And it seems that both Spanish (*!Ponga un tigre en su tanque!*) and German (*Pack den Tiger in den Tank!*) concur with the slogan (almost!) literally. French and Italian disagree as to where the strength is to be found, and they put the power ("tiger") in the motor: "*Mettez un tigre dans votre moteur*" and "*Metti un tigre nel motore.*" The four slogans provide an interesting discussion (Mollica, 116) and Italian (is it male chauvinism?) even changed *una tigre,* usually a feminine noun, into *un tigre,* an archaic and no longer used word. As for the symbol of the tiger, Ash (6) provides interesting reading.

An analysis of four advertisements will show how different activities can be suggested.

Figure 5 presents verbs from the world of violence (*assassinare, freddare*).

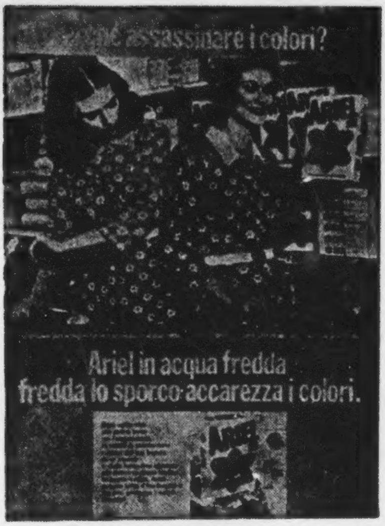

assassinare i colori?
Ariel in acqua fredda
fredda lo sporco accarezza i colori.
Ariel

Fig. 5

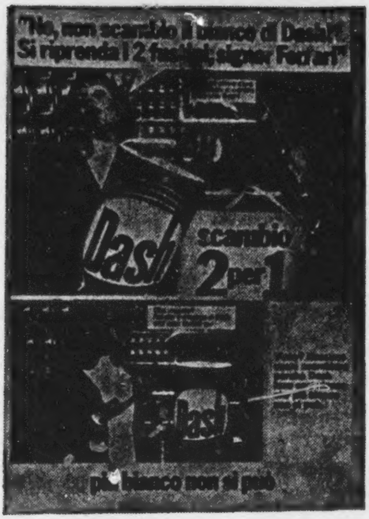

"No, non scambio il bianco di Dash!
Si riprenda i 2 fustini, signor Ferrari"
Dash
scambio
2 per 1
Dash
più bianco non si può

Fig. 6

La pratique amène l'excellence.

Fig. 7

L'ÉCLAT C'EST MOI
"L'éclat, c'est moi!"
all

Fig. 8

Students may be assigned an exercise aimed at vocabulary expansion. Other verbs with similar meanings might be *uccidere, ammazzare, trucidare, massacrare, fucilare, sterminare, stecchire, trafiggere,* etc. In addition to vocabulary building, teachers may also wish to point out that the lady shops daily—a "cultural" characteristic evident in the photograph. Comprehension questions may also be asked. Figure 6 lends itself well to role playing. Students may be asked to act out the scene. The dialogue may be drawn directly from the ad (reminiscent of the *fotoromanzo* format) or made up by students. Teachers may point out that soap comes in a *fustino* as well in Italy. Figure 7 provides a point of departure for introducing proverbs (*La pratique amène l'excellence*), but the proverb also illustrates the activity in the picture (the boy plays the piano and baseball—an opportunity to introduce *jouer de* and *jouer à*). Practice will make perfect for the boy just as practice has led Harding carpets to excellence. The durability of the product is assured: the boy (running shoes on his feet, baseball bat near the chair) seems to indicate that these carpets can take a lot of wear and tear. At another language level, Figure 8 alters the famous Louis XIV quote to suit the ad. The slogan, like the product, stands high, absolute, above different items of various sizes (representing possibly the subjects). *All* is the *nec plus ultra* among similar products. Everything sparkles in the picture—including the slogan. Students may be given other famous sayings and asked to alter them for different ads.

Loew (96) suggests that ten-minute oral discussion on advertisements might provide answers to the following questions:

- What kinds of products are advertised?
- To whom?
- Why do people buy these products?
- What influence do American products have on the foreign market?
- Compare/contrast the advertising approach with that in similar American/Canadian magazines.

Let students draw their own conclusions on what the foreigner buys and how he or she is approached. Another day, take one or two short advertisement texts, duplicating them on ditto (Jorstad, 81; Rallo, 135; Schulz, 145; Seelye and Day, 146). Choose those that are interesting, possibly even amusing, and those that contain structural materials under study in the class; for example, commands are in many ads. Have an ad on display during the class to show how it is set up and to aid students pictorially. Loew (96) also suggests that teachers gloss particularly difficult words with cognates and use this as an intensive reading assignment. They might also: point out or elicit familiar structures in the text; pronounce new words and difficult sounds; have students read the ad as if it were being broadcast over TV or radio. Ads with a dialogue are particularly good for role playing. The language used can prove interesting to students as well as to teachers; the increasing number of English words in Italian advertisements, for example, reveal the American influence on Italian life: *comfort, privacy, camping, nite dancing, after shave,* etc. (Tursi, 155). Several authors include advertisements in readers or basic texts (e.g., Da Silva, 41; Kozma, 86), or as a collection of ads to be studied separately (Wielandt and Wild, 160).

Pedagogical applications of advertisements in the language classroom are often discussed at length and in detail (Ganderton and McBride, 57), excellent bibliographies are readily available (Lacoste and Metz, 87; Phelouzat and Yahi, 131), grammar textbooks frequently include a discussion on advertisements (Annaratone and Rossi, 3; Biagi and Heilmann, 12), and learned journals devote entire issues to them (Friedman, 54, 55)

Slides

Slides and filmstrips are readily available from many commercial firms. They provide an excellent visual element in the classroom and can emphasize various aspects of the life and culture of the country whose language is being studied. Slides may be used for vocabulary building, grammatical exercises, free conversation stimulus, as well as in compositions, culture, and literature. Runte (140) suggests that when introducing vocabulary items in a unit, a slide of the word might be shown. For example, a word like "*croissant*" adds cultural background and provides a change from a transparency on which the teacher has sketched one. Salt (141) believes that pictorial impressions help a student to remember "new words." They also allow the teacher to concentrate upon areas of vocabulary which are of obvious interest to students. Slides may complement a basic language program. In *Basic Italian* (Speroni and Golino, 148) there are many references to Fiesole, Milan, Naples, Capri, Venice, Siena, Pisa, Rome, but the city most emphasized in this text is Florence. The many slides readily available for Florence make it possible to prepare short descriptions on its churches, its monuments, its museums, its paintings—vestiges of an era for which Italy is justly famous. A guidebook may be a useful source to assist teachers in describing the views presented. Jaremko (79) tells of a project developed in Calgary, Alberta, in response to an urgent need. "*Le français à Calgary*" is a series of filmstrips and tapes prepared as a supplement to the first fourteen lessons of the course *Voix et Images de France.* Calgary houses, stores, the Stampede, scenes at school, students en route to the movies, shopping, visits to a large local park all emphasize interests of junior high school students. Jaremko's main goal in the pilot project is to adapt the course materials to students' lives in Calgary.

Mollica (115) suggests that slides be used to develop more fully topics to which only a passing reference has been made. In *Basic Italian* (148), the authors refer to the *palio* (a horse race at Siena) and yet a full description is never given. The teacher may take the reference as a point of departure and prepare a unit on the *palio.* A similar unit could be developed on "Art in Florence" in which paintings of both the Uffizi Gallery and Pitti Palace could be shown and discussed. Arendt's (5) teachers have developed slide sets on French, German, and Spanish foods. The possibilities for this type of activity are limited only by the number of slides the teacher has or by the number of projects the teacher may wish to assign.

Slides may be used to illustrate imaginary tours. Given a city map (e.g., Florence), students are told that the whole class will be taking a sight-seeing tour of that city. With the aid of slides, the teacher (acting as a guide) describes the various points of interest as the bus travels through the city. The teacher may decide to stop at any given place and tour the interior with the class. To encourage student participation, the teacher may ask three or four students to take turns as guides for part of the trip. The same procedure can be followed for a "walking tour," and students should be encouraged to "stop" along the way and do some shopping. This latter technique will increase student participation since some will be acting as vendors and others as tourists. Students involved actively in this presentation will be required to do some advance preparation (Mollica, 117).

Slides may be used to introduce or recapitulate a reading selection. Some reading passages in *Basic Italian* (148) lend themselves beautifully to this technique. Examine, for example, the *lettura* of Lesson 24, in which slides can be easily integrated with the reading material. If, however, finished slides are not available, what may be used instead? Howlett (72) suggests that pictures related to the core of the course be collected from magazines and newspapers, and turned into slides.

Runte (140) points out, however, that for slides to be an effective tool, certain pitfalls must be avoided: 1) an overdose of slides caused by the enthusiasm of the instructor, and 2) teacher monopoly on images and conversation. This situation can be reversed if individual students are allowed "to show" the slide(s) and ask questions accordingly.

Transparencies

Perhaps the most useful aid in the day-to-day classroom situation is the overhead projector. A well-chosen, well-prepared transparency will save the teacher a tremendous amount of time and will give the student needed visual reinforcement. Particularly at the early stages of language learning, the transparency may be used to illustrate vocabulary items, and prevent the teacher from giving an English translation. Such a procedure will also establish the fact that English will be kept at a minimum in the language classroom. Mollica (115) suggests several uses of transparencies:

1 *Teaching general vocabulary.* Commercial firms (such as Gessler, 60, or Wible, 159) make transparencies which can be used in any language to teach parts of the body, articles of clothing, household items, foods, tableware, fruits, vegetables, beverages, and desserts, professions, occupations, trades, animals—both domestic and wild—, travel, means of transportation, and so on. These items should be taught in context. The transparency on foods, desserts, etc., could be a suitable introduction to

a restaurant scene or to the preparation of a menu in the target language. The transparency illustrating the various trades, professions, or occupations could be used when teaching "*to be (être/ser/essere/sein)* plus profession or occupation."

2. *Teaching the vocabulary of a given lesson.* The teacher may wish to prepare a transparency illustrating nouns appearing in a textbook lesson. Some texts, such as Da Silva's (39) already provide a visual vocabulary, however.
3. *Teaching time.* A transparency of a clock with movable hands is most useful for this purpose.
4. *Visual reinforcement during oral exercises.* There are always some students who do not pay attention to oral answers. Many drills in textbooks may be written out or done orally. In either case, these drills may be quickly corrected if the answers appear on the transparency. The entire exercise should be masked and the answers shown one by one. The student who did not hear or pay attention to the spoken answer will see it in written form. The student who did hear or did pay attention to the answer will have a visual reinforcement.
5. *Cue cards.* If a dialogue is transferred to a transparency, it can serve as a cue card, and the students will be able to accompany the dialogue with suitable gestures.
6. *Aids to grammar lessons.* As a review of the present tense, for example, the teacher may type the infinitive stem on a basic transparency; the endings—in a different color—would appear on an overlay.
7. *Geography of a country.* Mollica (115) suggests that a map is ideal for both teaching and testing. A blank map might be distributed to the students who are then asked to name the various Italian *capoluoghi.* The answers can be treated as vocabulary items. The same can be done with the various regions of Italy. Answers can be checked after the "test" maps are exchanged for marking. This can be done with overlays if the blank map is placed on a static transparency. The map of Italy with its regional boundaries and dots indicating the cities should be the static transparency while the names of the regions and cities should be placed on overlays.
8. *Conversational stimuli.* Yale Book Co. (163) has an excellent series for French, German, Italian, and Spanish, each accompanied by teaching guides.
9. *Miscellaneous.* Transparencies may also be used to provide summaries of short stories (Mollica, 114), and material for oral testing and directed dialogues, and for short or oral compositions.

Newspapers and magazines

Echard (46) offers perhaps the best reason for including newspapers and magazines in the language classroom: "Any sequential course of language studies which does not at some period include exposure to the language through a medium not specifically tailored to the teaching of that language will remain a very artificial thing" (p. 27). James and Lange (78) not only agree with her but also describe how newspaper and magazine material can be used for vocabulary building, speaking practice, reading comprehension, and written and cultural exercises. Whether it be short material (such as advertisements, want ads, weather reports, cartoons and comic strips, entertainment listings), long material (full length feature articles, editorials, letters to the editor, fictional stories), or technical material (headlines, photograph captions, mastheads, tables of contents, column headings and datelines), the printed matter offers a springboard for a host of pedagogical activities which, if used effectively, will help the acquisition of language skills and provide an insight into another country's culture. The value of the newspaper is so widely recognized that it is often included even in first-language classes. Although teachers will benefit from a reading of James and Lange (78), other authors such as Campeau and Ménard (28), Partlow (129), and Soulières (147) should also be considered for their many useful and innovative ideas.

The past decade has seen books in Spanish, French, and Italian which systematically present articles originally published in newspapers and magazines. Authors such as Alegría (1), Gregor (64), Morton and Morton (121) are among those providing good coverage of topics of current interest, and their books are generally well annotated, with factual questions, topics for discussion, vocabulary aids, etc. Echard (46), however, complains that books of this nature present the students with a "package deal" at a point when most can profit from a more free-ranging personal exploration; they cannot be adopted with the same degree of ease to serve individual interests; moreover, they lose their topicality in direct ratio to their years. Jorstad (81), Rallo (135), Schulz (145) and Seelye and Day (146) have provided duplicating masters to assist teachers in obtaining quick copies but an opaque projector will also be of considerable aid.

Howlett (71) shares the view that "The newspaper is a living force. It is current; it is real. Best of all, it was never intended for classroom use. It was never adopted lexically or structurally. Just think of it, no pattern drills, no structural exercises. Good old living French. Unbelievable! But the newspaper must not be considered as a frill, a diversion, or entertainment. It should be an integral part of the course. It can provide the starting point for short discussions; it can help build a rich and varied vocabulary" (p. 752). Echard (46) points out that "besides its diversity, there is contemporaneousness not only of subject matter but also of vocabulary. Pollution, ecology, hi-jacking, transplants, drugs, women's liberation, the generation gap, all these are subjects which we cannot begin to discuss adequately without having recourse to magazines, newspapers, etc. It is only there that we find the words we need; they have certainly not filtered down into dictionaries as yet," (p. 27). Teachers are advised to subscribe to magazines or newspapers directly from the country or province (in the case of Québec) of origin, since publications by various ethnic groups in North America are often influenced by both English language and North American culture.

Films

Since films continue to be a major vehicle for recreation and social ideology, they should constitute an effective tool for language learning. Mitchell (107) identifies three major reasons for including film in the course of study:

1 Motion pictures are a major contemporary artistic expression, a distinct genre
2 Their cultural value now lies far beyond pure entertainment
3 As a part of its continuing responsibility in the broad field of the arts, education should contribute to the development of a more informed and discerning film audience

Teachers often struggle to create the illusion of a foreign language milieu. "A film can provide it, complete with gesture, costume, customs and individual idiom. It transports students into another world. The visual medium is more absorbing than the printed page and more readily creates emotional appeal" (Mitchell, 107, p. 30).

Connole (32) concurs with Mitchell and suggests that film may be studied as a psychological document, as material for sociological study dealing with life and culture, or as artistic expression. Mitchell chose *Les visiteurs du soir* (written by Jacques Prévert and directed by Marcel Carné) for study with her Level V students, and the film involved students in many meaningful and interesting class and out-of-class assignments.

Walbruck (157) tells of an experiment in which one group of students used films and handbooks, the other tapes and handbooks only. In subsequent tests the group using the films scored better in language absorption than the group without films. He points out that using films saves time, since the visual content helps to communicate meaning, and retention is increased because of the impact of the pictorial impressions.

Arendt (5) is not overly pleased with the language films available from commercial sources. He feels that they are generally plodding, lifeless portrayals of life abroad, but singles out the *Toute la Bande* films for French and the *Guten Tag* and *Guten Tag Wie Geht's* films for German as exceptions to this generalization.

A quick survey of the recently available literature would indicate, however, that it is the full-length or feature film which is used in high school courses (Mitchell, 107) or at the college/university level (Bondanella, 17; Connole, 32; Figge, 49; Markey, 99; Michalczyk, 103. Courses on the cinema have become increasingly popular in the last few years, not only because of a country's important contribution to the development of film art but also because many small departments have viewed them as a means of expanding enrollments beyond the traditional areas of language or literature.

Figge (49) suggests some possibilities for teaching German culture through the medium of fictional film and gives brief examples of German films that he found useful in communicating some aspect or problem of twentieth-century culture.

Michalczyk (103) notes that "on the human level the students learned to avoid generalizations and idealizations. They found themselves putting aside prominent myths of a 'romantic' Paris, especially after seeing the housing, traffic, and population problems; and that of the provinces as *'le désert français,'* after coming into contact with the rich and varied cultural level of the small, southern village" (p. 234).

Moget and Ferenczi (109) point out that showing a film introduces into the classroom a world of singular representations whose affective impact arouses an intense participation. Darkness and the impression of isolation make students unaware of their surroundings and their attention is riveted on the screen. The result is an effect of bewilderment which breaks the rhythm of routine activities, and the innovation in the use of time fights fatigue, avoids saturation, stimulates, and frees the student's energy.

Films can be a motivational source as well as a teaching aid. They can change the class' atmosphere and multiply conversational exchanges between teacher and students. Indeed, in some cases, the film constitutes part of the French examination. Connole (32) reports that in Australia in 1973, the written section of the French examination was reduced by ten minutes and a short test on the study of films took place on another date. The test consisted of six questions based on two excerpts which were shown twice. The first was a multiple-choice language question dealing with three expressions found in the sequence shown; in another, candidates were asked to describe the context of the two questions which linked the excerpts shown to the principal themes of the films.

Connole points out the flexibility of films:

1 In the course of a viewing it is possible to stop the film at any given point and to focus on important sequences or to go back for an in-depth study and discussion.
2 Where English subtitles exist, students may be involved in an interesting discussion on the difficulty of translation. (Connole's students were very critical of the subtitles.)
3 Sound tracks may be used in class or given to students for review.
4 The dialogue may be used to prepare language lessons at varied levels for structured exercises.

Dahms (35) discusses in detail how exercises based on films reinforce grammar. For example, if adjectives and their endings are being reviewed, he selects a set of ten sentences from the script, omitting the adjective endings. If relative clauses are being studied, the students are given sentences to be made into relative clauses. At a less advanced level, verb tenses may be changed, sentences converted to singular or plural, and so on. For the actual film period, Dahms often constructs a set of questions in the target language on the content of the segment. These questions usually require extremely short answers which can be gleaned directly from the film and reproduced almost verbatim, the aim being to check comprehension. Questions ranged from the very simple *Who? When? Where? How?* sort to more complex ones, depending upon the level of the class. For more advanced students, the additional questions, discussions, and written assignments deal in social, cultural, historical, and ethical problems raised by and related to the film texts.

Television and videotapes

Television and videotapes are other sources which, like film, can create a target-language milieu and reinforce the teaching and acquisition of language skill. Berwald (11) proposes a number of activities which can take place if the sound portion of a telecast is erased and a new one is produced.

1 Narrate the action on the screen in the foreign language as it is taking place
2 Dub a dialogue in the foreign language
3 Dub material totally unrelated to the action on the screen to create humor

He also encourages teachers to start with American television, by selecting a program and asking students to take telegraphic notes, in French, of a five-to ten-minute segment of the program A student might copy notes that read as follows: */homme entre maison/parle avec enfants/en train regarder télé/téléphone sonne/qui demande M. Jones/*. After the segment has been viewed, students are asked to expand their notes into composition form, observing proper agreement, verb forms, tenses, etc. It might be better, however, to use material which is already in the target language. In Ontario the government has established the Ontario Educational Communications Authority. Programs for French, Spanish, Italian and Russian are often telecast, and educators may have them dubbed by OECA for a minimal charge (Howlett, 73). These are programs designed specifically for students learning a second language, and scripts and pedagogical guides often accompany the tapes. The aims of these programs may be summarized as follows:

1 To provide classroom teachers with an opportunity to immerse their students in a real-life situation in the language

2 To provide language reinforcement
3 To provide cultural enrichment.

Mollica (113) has examined one such program and has suggested a number of pre-viewing and post-viewing activities. While the post-viewing activities will vary, the pre-viewing activities are suitable for a wide range of programs. It is important that students be prepared in advance in order for them to derive the maximum benefit from the program. Consider the following suggestions:

1 Teachers may relate in their own words, in the target language, the essence of the program. Thus, they can introduce new elements and familiarize students with the plot in advance.
2 Teachers may distribute copies of the script in class, have students read it, and teachers discuss it with them before viewing the program.
3 Teachers may hand out a mimeographed sheet with a list of words or expressions taken from the program with which students should be familiar.
4 If the script for the program is provided by teachers, they may want to edit it by preparing marginal vocabulary and footnotes.
5 Students may be asked to act out the play they have read *before* seeing it on TV. They will probably identify with a particular character, when the scene is viewed on television.
6 Teachers may play the sound track of the program alone, without the visual element, so that students may get accustomed to the speed of delivery of the actors.

More recently, OECA (122) has produced a series of thirty ten-minute episodes built around a basic French vocabulary presented in attractive skit form and featuring the noted Québécois clown "Sol." Written by Denise Boiteau and David Stansfield, *Parlez-moi* may be obtained from OECA at minimal cost. A script which accompanies the tapes may be reproduced for educational purposes as long as credit is given to OECA.

Berwald (11) used TV commercials in French, for they lend themselves well to instruction on several counts:

1 Often the same commercials appear in an English version in the United States. Students are interested in seeing how the same message is treated in another language (or in another culture).
2 There is often much humor, action, and variety in a tautly prepared sixty-second dramatization.
3 Written sentences often appear on the screen to aid comprehension and reinforce the spoken form.
4 The addition of music or a jingle renders the announcement more interesting and amusing.

5 The time factor is excellent; there is much that can be done with a minute of material, and yet it is an allotment of time students can handle without getting confused or bored.
6 A commercial is also a good starting point for further use of television.

An advantage of a videotaperecorder is the pause button which allows the action to be "frozen" on the screen (much like the film projector), thus allowing teachers to pose as many questions as they wish.

Arendt (5) suggests still another use of the videotape; he reports that one of his teachers videotaped a bullfight on location in Mexico and received permission to tape a number of commercial television programs as well. The programs were well received by students and teachers eager to see what foreigners are watching for entertainment.

Buehler (27) used the VTR to train teaching assistants. The flexibility of the VTR allows the instructor to stop or rerun any segment of the videotape for closer analysis, discussion or general critique.

The bulletin board

Holt (68) comments that although he has been in a good many school buildings—hundreds, many of them very new—he can count on the fingers of two hands those in which the halls were made more alive and human by art or decoration, by the children or anyone else. Mitchell (108) shares that view.

> In many a language classroom there is almost nothing which would immediately identify it to the eye as a place where the "other-language" lurks. Posters and other visual material on the walls not only render the learning environment more pleasant, but carry a subtle cultural message as well. This is admittedly easier for teachers who are located in one room for all their classes than it is for an itinerant teacher or one who circulates from room to room during the day. But even the latter can make some arrangement with the other teachers involved, to establish, in the room they use, some visual contact with the language (p. 257).

Just "decorating" the classroom is not enough. Materials for this purpose should be changed often and should have an integral role in classroom activities.

> To what extent does the environment of the language classroom appeal to the senses? How much smell, taste, touch, emotion and visual impact has the language lost by being forced into the classroom? Is it

> possible that, in order to squeeze the language into the learning box, we have lopped off the very things which lend meaning to the language? How often do students leave a language classroom, not entirely sure whether they have just had a French lesson or a period of Math? All that we need do, perhaps, is compare the student's exposure in the classroom to what he would experience in the actual milieu where the target language is used natively. How much of the cultural background, the paralinguistic blanket, is to be found in school? . . . Our language programs surely have to allow the students not only to discover language facts, but also to soak up some of the feelings, the sounds, the sights and the smells which accompany them. This is what gives to language some element of reality, of life; this is what makes it enjoyable and meaningful to learn. (Mitchell, 108, p. 256).

Arendt (5) suggests that by clipping pictures from magazines, alert teachers have created attractive bulletin boards, have taught vocabulary, structure drills, and basic sentences, and have stimulated oral and written compositions.

The bulletin board can be a "visual" force helping to stress language skills. Thematic bulletin boards (Christmas, Easter, national holidays) provide insights into the other culture as well as expansion of vocabulary. Students should be encouraged to collect pictorial materials from magazines and should be made responsible, on a rotating basis, for sections of the display area. They are generally eager to cooperate, and prizes may even be offered to those students who prepare the bulletin board with the greatest eye-appeal.

During an era of dwindling language enrollments, teachers should seize every opportunity "to sell" their subject. Though school corridors could be brightened up with murals and pictures, they are often bare. Enthusiasm is contagious and it will not take long for other students to start wanting "to drop into" the language classroom. Let us make that place welcoming and appealing!

Conclusion

It is easy for any teacher to become overconfident with a good enrollment in the first year. But how many students stay in the same course in the second and subsequent years? It is equally easy to blame declining enrollments on the absence of language requirements, inadequate textbooks, or lack of encouragement by an unenlightened administration. "In the past two decades," says Lafayette (88), "we have spent an inordinate amount of time seeking one correct approach to teaching foreign languages with the result that every ten or fifteen years a new approach is introduced and immediately placed at odds against the old. Hopefully, the current enrollment and retention problems will suggest to all of us that the past is not to be emulated. Rather than pursuing the search for the one faith, we should gather all that is good from various past methods and entertain the possibility of using different approaches with different students" (p. 352).

"We are going to have to provide the student some options in what he *wants* to learn of foreign languages," urges Strasheim (150). "We can use his interests to go where we think we must, but we must use *his* interests" (p. 53). Mitchell (108) echoes her concerns. Because language programs are sequential—or at least continuing in nature—one starts off with a base of a certain number of students, and each year or at each level thereafter some students drop out. Hardly ever do students "drop in." This results in a pyramid effect, with only a small portion of those who started reaching the apex in senior years. To offset this, Mitchell suggests that teachers should be devising supplementary language programs of various kinds, both to ensure appropriate experiences to the greatest number of students, and also to allow some of them to "drop in" on language study, if only for a limited time.

In addition to the varied activities, Mitchell urges that we offer a variety of language courses tailored to fit students with different backgrounds; that we adjust our classroom procedures to make the situation more comfortable for the learner; that we capitalize on interests students have before they walk through our classroom doors; that we help Johnny and his parents to be aware of just how much progress he is making in the language.

Daniel (38) designed a questionnaire suitable for any foreign language program and for several grade levels. It was hoped that in the development and implementation of program, teachers would be assisted by having on hand some data on certain *student* views such as:

1 Reasons for studying foreign language
2 Perceptions of the aims of foreign language programs
3 Evaluation of certain aspects of foreign language programs
4 Reasons for discontinuing the study of a foreign language.

Colleagues have also provided either short, quick quizzes for self-evaluation of language teachers (Lannéval, 89) or longer, foreign-language attitude surveys designed to help teachers explore their own attitudes and assumptions concerning language learning and teaching (De García et al., 43). Teachers realize, as Phillips (132) points out, that "the neatly wrapped package for uniform distribution to a group of potential language learners has failed to live up to its advertising. There is no one right method for all learners at all stages. Alternatives in pace, content, goals and learning strategies require teachers and students alike to make choices—choices about *how* they learn and *what* they learn, all within the foreign language context" (p. 11).

Papalia (126) firmly believes that:

> It is necessary to understand and identify the learning styles a student utilizes in order to enhance motivation and increase learning . . . Is the student an *incremental learner* who likes to learn step by step? An *intuitive learner* who leaps to generalizations? A *sensory specialist* who learns better by seeing or hearing? An *emotionally involved* learner who depends heavily on interpersonal relationships? An *eclectic learner* who is able to adapt to any learning style? In seeking answers to these questions, teachers acknowledge that each student is an individual who learns in a unique way and that options in learning should be provided for all students. By seeking these answers, they can better adjust their teaching materials and classroom pacing and grouping, and tailor instruction to the needs of each individual. Individualizing the mode of learning is as essential as individualizing the rate of learning (p. 15).

Zampogna et al. (164) concur: "Language teachers interested in individualizing instruction should design learning environments which provide varying degrees of structure, and should use different strategies and materials compatible with the individual differences of the learner" (p. 447). Recent writings by Hosenfeld (69, 70) and Wood (161) also reinforce the suggestions.

Figure 9 shows five settings proposed by Papalia (126).

Setting One: To facilitate 1) the introduction of new material; 2) the use of audio-visual aids; 3) testing; 4) activities where everyone is doing the same thing; 5) independent work; and 6) choral work.

Setting Two: To facilitate 1) teacher mobility; 2) eye contact; 3) pupil attention; 4) communication; 5) game playing; and 6) teacher control.

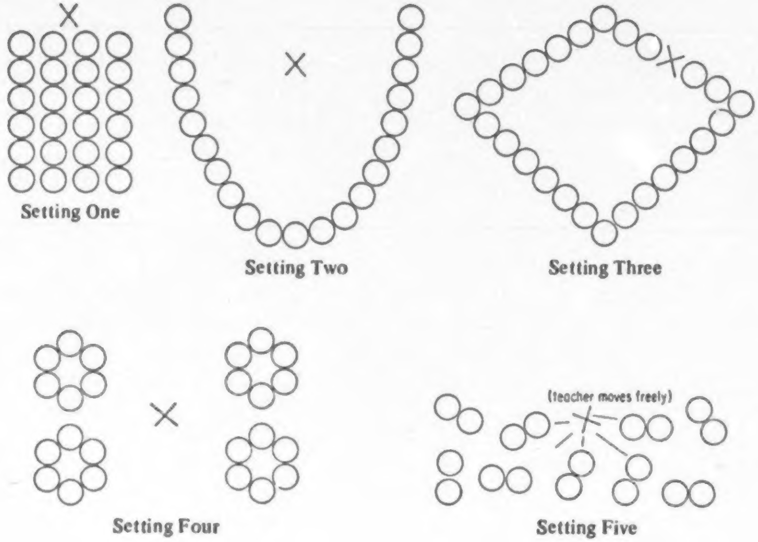
Setting Three: To facilitate 1) large-group discussion; 2) participation of the teacher as an equal; 3) an informal atmosphere for oral presentations; and 4) communication directed to all, not just to the teacher.

Setting Four: To facilitate 1) remedial activities; 2) tutoring; 3) use of tape recorders and media; 4) reinforcement of learned material; 5) use of self-instructional materials; 6) peer teaching; 7) skit planning; 8) games for two; 9) one-to-one teacher-pupil interaction; 10) self-pacing; 11) teacher awareness of individual learning problems; and 12) grouping according to interests or needs.

Setting Five: To enhance 1) peer interaction; 2) peer teaching; 3) "specific skill" grouping; 4) variable pacing; 5) tutorial work; 6) games, simulations, and role playing in a competitive or noncompetitive setting; 7) group projects; and 8) oral practice (pp. 34–35).

Like a puzzle—using different pieces to provide a beautiful picture as the end result—these suggestions for using supplementary material should provide a lasting mosaic which helps to ensure success in language learning and teaching.

As UCLA's W. H. Magoun pointed out to Leonard (93), "In our sense



Setting One

Setting Two

Setting Three

Setting Four

Setting Five

Fig. 9 Classroom settings *(Papalia, 126)*

organs—eyes, ears and so on—we possess the most beautifully controlled, delicate and effective access to the brain. If we want to change a brain, we can best do it though through our natural senses. That is what we *are* doing everyday, what society has always done. The puzzle for the future is how to do it better" (p. 34).

Each day we face impressionable young people who are spending their formative years in our classrooms. Our task is to educate them—*educare*, in its Latin meaing, *to lead out*—and to provide classroom settings as well as teaching which is interesting and dynamic. Teachers have never been known to lack creativity or imagination. We are molding tomorrow's world leaders today. No other profession can boast of such creative responsibility.

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Stage 7

Measuring the variables and testing the outcomes

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Introduction

For centuries, in every facet of life, people have been proving their knowledge and skills through performance. Whether formal or informal, tests have been a way of marking an individual's development. In the twentieth century, the art of measurement and evaluation has been developed to a point where tests have become more creative, more imaginative, more streamlined, and more efficient than before.

In the domain of foreign language learning, research in testing is a dynamic and expanding field. The review chapters on language testing which have appeared in the ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series (Clark, 18; Jones, 37; Jorstad, 39; Valette, 79) bear witness in their extensive bibliographies to the broad range of research being carried out in this field. In recent

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years, several collections of papers on testing have appeared (Jones and Spolsky, 38; Oller and Richards, 53, part IV; Palmer and Spolsky, 56; Redden, 62; Sewell, 69). Moreover, the International Association of Applied Linguistics has established a permanent Commission on Language Tests and Testing which publishes a regular newsletter and sponsors sessions in conjunction with various professional meetings.

This chapter will focus on the needs and requirements of the practicing teacher. Rather than presenting an extensive review of the most recent research interests in the area of language testing, the authors will attempt to synthesize current developments in the field for their practical applications in the classroom.

- What is the role of testing in the schools?
- How can one identify and measure the student and teacher variables?
- How can one develop effective placement procedures?
- How can the outcomes of instruction be tested and on what bases should grades be assigned?
- What is the role of national tests and how should scores be interpreted?
- How can tests be used to improve the foreign language program?

Because of space limitations, this chapter will focus on general areas of concern. Readers wishing to explore the field of language testing in greater depth should consult the expanded and revised edition of Valette, *Modern Language Testing* (77), as well as the handbooks by Allen and Davies (2), Clark (17), Harris (28), Heaton (29), Lado (40), and Mothe (50). An excellent handbook on broader measurement questions is that of Bloom et al. (6).

Why testing?

When prepared and administered correctly, tests play an essential role in the total foreign language program: they furnish the information needed for effective program development, they serve as indicators of classroom progress, and they also give invaluable assistance in curriculum evaluation.

The role of testing in program development

In building a foreign language program, teachers and administrators must be familiar with the "givens". Who are the learners? Why are they in the foreign language program? What do they want? How much are they capable of doing? As for the teachers themselves, how much are they capable of giving? How much are they bringing with them into the program? Obviously, the foreign language program in an elite New England preparatory school will be different from one in an inner-city junior high school. Accurately defining and measuring the student and teacher variables will lead to the creation of a program which focuses on the students' interests and abilities, while taking into account the teachers' capabilities.

Developing placement procedures

Given the mobility of a significant proportion of the American population, many teachers are faced with the challenge of placing new students into a pre-established curriculum. Although placement is a greater concern in universities and summer programs, the larger secondary schools also find they must cope with articulation within their school system. To what extent can placement tests simplify these tasks?

Measuring classroom progress

Classroom testing is of paramount concern to the teacher, especially because the nature and form of the tests reflect de facto the objectives of the course. Effective classroom testing is a crucial factor in curricular change. The classroom test is potentially the most dangerous and misused tool of the profession. It is only through the use of carefully thought out tests that the teacher can be confident that course goals are being met.

Testing and curriculum evaluation

Tests can be used to evaluate existing programs within the school, as well as to compare intrascholastic programs. Local proficiency tests can help administrators determine whether their program is providing the desired results, while national tests furnish a means for administrators to evaluate their students' performances against national norms.

Getting to know the variables

One cannot set up a foreign language program blindly and expect to achieve any measure of success. In establishing a program, there are always a number of important variables that must be taken into consideration before the foreign language department can determine the direction of the program. The capabilities and limitations of the teachers, and the needs and aptitudes of the students must be clear if the department is to decide on appropriate goals and aspirations and determine the type of foreign language curriculum that will be most effective.

Measuring the language proficiency of teachers

In her study of foreign language teachers, Moskowitz (48) found that teachers considered to be outstanding not only used the foreign language more frequently in the classroom than the typical teacher, but also demonstrated a higher degree of oral proficiency. There are three tests available in the United States for measuring the language proficiency of teachers: the MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Test for Teachers and Advanced Students (47), the National Teacher Examinations (51), and the Language Proficiency Interview (41).

The MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students are available in French, Russian, German, Italian, and Spanish. They are currently used by the Regents External Degree Program of the state of New York to grant college credit and to meet certification requirements.

These tests contain four sections which measure listening, speaking, reading and writing. Three additional sections evaluate the candidate's knowledge of applied linguistics, culture and civilization, and professional preparation. Since these tests were developed in the early 1960s, the last three sections are somewhat dated. For a complete evaluation of these tests, see Tollinger and Paquette (73).

James and Jorstad (36) compared the results of the speaking and writing portions of the MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests with the scores which native raters assigned to student videotapes and compositions. Although they found positive correlations between the two sets of scores, they concluded that better tests of productive proficiency should be developed.

The National Teacher Examinations are available in French, German, and Spanish. The first two sections of the test measure listening comprehension and reading skills. The third section, entitled language analysis, evaluates knowledge of phonetics, morphology, and syntax. The fourth focuses on the culture and civilization of the countries where the language under study is spoken.

After many years of research, the Educational Testing Service has finally standardized a new Language Proficiency Interview which consists of a structured conversation lasting about twenty minutes. The tape of this interview between the candidate and the test administrator is then professionally evaluated in Princeton. Scores are reported as proficiency levels:

Level 0: Unable to function in the language
Level 1: Able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements
Level 2: Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements
Level 3: Able to speak the language effectively in everyday and professional discussions

Level 4: Able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs
Level 5: Able to speak at a proficiency level equivalent to that of an educated native speaker

Although ideally the foreign language teacher should attain Level 4 on this scale, the minimum satisfactory level would probably be Level 3. Since the Language Proficiency Interview has only become available in spring 1978, it is too early to evaluate its usefulness to the teaching profession. It is hoped that departments hiring new teachers would require that the results of this test be included as part of the candidate's dossier.

Evaluating teacher effectiveness in the classroom

The true measure of the teacher's effectiveness in the classroom would be what students remember and retain ten years later. This long-range effect is most likely impossible to evaluate, and in any case does not provide the department with the immediate feedback needed to determine tenure and staffing decisions.

Enrollment trends may be interpreted as indirect measures of teacher effectiveness, although the popular teacher is not always the one who transmits the subject matter in the most effective manner. On the other hand, the teacher with consistently low enrollments is detrimental to the language department in these days of cost-conscious and productivity-minded school boards and administrations.

Student evaluations, which are now rather widely used at the college level, can be employed to improve language instruction. Randle (61) has formulated a Student Questionnaire Evaluation of Foreign Language Classes (pp. 372–73) which elicits information on teacher effectiveness and the perceived value of course content.

Classroom observations provide another avenue for determining how classroom time is spent. Moskowitz has developed the FLint (*F*oreign *L*anguage *Int*eraction) system to analyze pupil-teacher interaction in foreign language classes. Like the Flanders system on which it was based, FLint distinguishes between indirect teacher influence (whereby students are encouraged to participate actively) and direct teacher influence (which tends to limit student actions). An excellent introduction to this topic is her report, "Interaction in the Foreign-Language Class" (Moskowitz, 49).

On a more informal level, the teacher can prepare a checklist which reflects the goals of a specific lesson plan. For example, if the aim of a particular day's lesson is to have the students learn how to use the past tense of specific irregular verbs, the teacher might decide on the following activities:

1 Have the students read a short passage in past tense forms
2 From their observations, have students locate forms of irregular verbs and write them on the board
3 Discuss the formation of the past tense of these verbs
4 Use past tense in whole class and small group communication activities
5 Have students write a short composition in the past tense, using these verbs

From this lesson plan, the teacher can then rank the five items in order of importance according to the course objectives (Does this particular language course emphasize oral communication skills, or is it more important that the students learn to read and write in the foreign language?). On the day of the lesson, an administrator or another member of the department could sit in on the class and keep a record of the number of minutes spent on each of the five activities. Or the teacher could simply record the lesson on a cassette player. The teacher can use the resulting analysis to compare how classroom time is being spent in relation to the course goals and to ascertain whether optimal use is being made of the available time. For example, a teacher who sees that fifteen minutes out of a fifty minute class are spent on grammar explanations, while only ten minutes are devoted to communication activities, in a program where the major goal is oral communication, should make a concerted effort to reduce grammar time, and to increase the number of communication activities.

Measuring student aptitude

Carroll (11), in his learning model, postulated five variables which contribute to the successful mastery of a complex task, such as learning a second language.

Instructional variables:
1 Adequacy of presentation (quality of instruction)
2 Opportunity for learning (time allowed for learning)
Student variables:
3 General intelligence (ability to understand instruction)
4 Aptitude (time needed to learn a task)
5 Motivation (perseverance)

By defining aptitude as the time needed to learn a task, Carroll implies that all students are able to learn a second language if given enough time, and that those with high aptitudes are simply those who, all other factors being equal, will learn it more rapidly. The term "aptitude" should not be confused with "intelligence": a person who does not possess a facility for learning languages is not automatically and necessarily a "stupid" person.

In her review of the research on aptitude testing, Valette (75) found that this research was based on three assumptions:

1 Certain talents or abilities (loosely termed "aptitude") contribute to the "ease" with which a student learns a foreign language.
2 "Aptitude" is unevenly distributed in the population. Therefore, a student's degree of aptitude can be measured quantitatively.
3 The nature of "aptitude" may vary as instructional objectives change. The aptitude for learning to speak a language, for example, might not be the same as the aptitude for learning to read and translate (p. 4).

Within the past two decades, three aptitude tests have been developed which are still in use today: the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery or PLAB (59), the Carroll-Sapon Modern Language Aptitude Test or MLAT (13), and the Carroll-Sapon Elementary Modern Language Aptitude Test or EMLAT (12). Each test contains a recorded portion and requires about an hour to administer.

The PLAB, for junior high and high school students, records students' grade-point averages and their stated interest in foreign languages, and then measures English vocabulary, grammatical analysis, sound discrimination, and sound-symbol association.

The MLAT, designed for high school students and adults, contains five subtests which measure auditory memory, sound-symbol association ability, English vocabulary, sensitivity to grammatical structure, and the ability to learn by rote.

The EMLAT, for elementary school students, consists of four parts which measure sound-symbol association, sensitivity to grammatical structure, sound discrimination, and auditory memory.

Although these tests may be used as prognostic instruments to help predict future success in language learning, it is recommended that they not be used to exclude students from a second-language course. After all, aptitude is but one of several factors contributing to success in the mastery of a task: a student with a high motivation to learn a second language and a low aptitude may learn more than a student with a higher aptitude but a lower level of motivation.

As diagnostic instruments, aptitude tests point out student strengths and weaknesses. Test results may be used to place students in appropriate learning groups. Moreover, by using aptitude tests in a diagnostic manner, teachers can anticipate areas where difficulties may occur; for instance, some students may need extra attention with grammar explanations while others may require additional listening practice.

Determining learning style

In recent years, especially as a result of the interest in individualizing instruction, several instruments have been developed to assess individual learning styles. Lepke (42), in a comprehensive article, reviews five such instruments which may be of interest to foreign language teachers: the Edmonds Learning Style Identification Exercise (ELSIE) developed by Reinert (63), the Cognitive Style Interest Inventory developed by Hill (30), the Student Behaviors Inventory developed by Papalia (57, pp. 16–17), the Paragraph Completion Test developed by Hunt (31), and the Learning Style Inventory (LSI) developed by Dunn et al. (21).

ELSIE is based on the hypothesis that the way a person internalizes his or her native language gives a profile of his or her learning style. This profile is reflected in the person's way of responding to common English words.

In the ELSIE test, students hear fifty English words. For each word they indicate their response as follows:

1 They have a mental image of an object or activity;
2 they have a mental image of the word spelled out;
3 they receive meaning from the sound of the word without visualization;
4 they have a fleeting kinesthetic reaction, either emotional or physical.

Here is an example taken from the test instructions.

> "Sink." (Pause) Did you see a kitchen sink or a ship sinking in the mud? If you had any such image, you would circle number one. Or did you see s-i-n-k spelled out in your mind's eye? If so, you would have circled number two. If you saw no visual image, then you would have circled number three. Or did you just for a moment have that sinking feeling in your stomach that you get on an elevator going down fast? If so, you would have circled number four" (Reinert, 63, p. 163)

An analysis of test results allows the teacher to determine whether students and entire classes have a preference among the four following learning styles:

1 *Visualization*, where it is important for the student to be able to see the objects or activities in order to learn
2 Dependence on the *written word*
3 *Listening*, which encompasses the ability to learn by hearing the spoken language, without having recourse to any other mode
4 *Activity*, where the student needs to accompany learning with some kind of physical activity, such as notetaking, pacing the floor, or writing out exercises.

The Cognitive Style Interest Inventory is a much more complex instrument than ELSIE. It focuses on certain cognitive elements divided into three "sets." Set One contains forty-eight elements focusing on cognitive preferences and response patterns, communicative interaction, role expectations, and other related areas. Set Two, with nine elements, explores the influence of the family and peer group, and Set Three, also with nine elements, looks into the individual's patterns of reaching conclusions. It is suggested that the inventory be supplemented by teacher observation and personal interviews. In an experiment with elementary German students, Lepke (43) found a definite correlation between learning styles as measured by the Cognitive Style Interest Inventory and foreign language achievement in traditional vs. individualized classes.

The Student Behaviors Inventory consists of forty-one student learning characteristics: cognitive styles, sensory modes, interaction style, work habits, personal characteristics, intellectual dependence, and originality. The teacher evaluates each student on the occurrence of these characteristics, as observed in the classroom, using a five-point scale which ranges from "never" to "very frequently." Papalia (57) suggests that the teacher study the results of these inventories in order to personalize classroom strategies (pp. 17–20).

In the Paragraph Completion Test, students are given about twenty-five minutes to write at least three full sentences on each of the following topics:

1 What I think about rules . . .
2 When I am criticized . . .
3 What I think about parents . . .
4 When someone does not agree with me . . .
5 When I am not sure . . .
6 When I am told what to do . . . (Hunt, 31)

The Paragraph Completion Test, which must be interpreted by a trained scorer, classifies students according to four levels of conceptual maturity:

Stage 0: self-centered; desires immediate gratification; rejects outside control
Stage 1: lives by rules; respects status and authority; frustrated by lack of guidelines
Stage 2: begins to evaluate alternatives, to take initiative, and to consider the needs of others
Stage 3: self-reliant; assesses alternatives with objectivity; clearly perceives relationship with self and others.

The rater then develops an educational approach and indicates the most compatible learning environment.

The Learning Style Inventory (Dunn et al., 21) consists of 100 true-false statements about learning preferences. The inventory provides information about environmental elements (including sound, light, and temperature), emotional elements (including motivation and need for structure), sociological elements (including preferences for individual or group work, peer or teacher guidance), and physical elements (including sensory preferences, eating habits, and optimum learning times). In a larger school system, students and teachers could be matched according to compatible learning and teaching styles.

In interpreting the results of an instrument to determine preferred learning styles, the teacher should realize that these styles may change across time and therefore should be careful not to stereotype students according to test results. However, the information on preferred learning styles together with the results of a language aptitude battery should furnish teachers with useful diagnostic information which will help in the formulation of a more effective second-language program.

Measuring student attitude and motivation

Teachers should also be acquainted with their students' reasons for studying the foreign language. In an era where many American universities have dropped the language requirement, students are much less likely to take up, let alone continue their study of a foreign language if it does nothing to advance their personal needs.

According to Gardner and Lambert (25), the students' attitude reflects an "instrumental" outlook when they consider the practical value and advantages of learning a new language, and an "integrative" outlook when they demonstrate a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture of the language under study (p. 132). The motivational and attitudinal scales developed by Gardner and Lambert for their research with English-speaking American students and French-American students are presented in Appendix A (pp. 147–63)

In 1970, under the sponsorship of the Northeast Conference, Jakobovits (33, 34) prepared the Foreign Language Attitude Questionnaire (FLAQ), designed to pinpoint the affective and humanistic needs of students. The questionnaire probes the students' language background, their attitudes toward the foreign language, and their reasons for study (e.g., the skills they want to develop, their views about the benefits of knowing a second language). Most of the items are formulated in a multiple-choice format, but students also have the opportunity to write in additional comments.

The University of Illinois Questionnaire on Student Interests in Foreign Languages was developed in 1972 by Rivers (65) to determine why undergraduate students enrolled in second language courses. The questionnaire (pp. 216–220) contains seventy-five questions in a multiple-choice format.

Initial attitudes and motivation are strongly modified by perceived success or failure in the foreign language course. In reporting the results of the Pennsylvania Foreign Language Project, Smith (70) concludes that it is "impossible to utilize initial student opinion about foreign-language study as an indication of later motivation to continue into Level II" (p. 208). All students tend to have positive attitudes as they begin language study, but those who experience difficulty and frustration in the language course develop negative attitudes. An indirect year-end evaluation of student attitude, therefore, could consist of a brief questionnaire asking students whether they plan to continue their language instruction.

Placing incoming students

Schools with a broad range of language course offerings, such as the larger high schools, summer language programs, and most universities, experience the need at the beginning of each new session to place incoming students with a variety of backgrounds. It is no longer possible to equate years of study with level of proficiency: not only do some courses progress much more rapidly than others, but students have been away from language instruction for varying periods of time: three months, a year, several years, etc.

Each school usually has to develop its own placement procedures, based on the types of students it receives and the nature of the curricular offerings. The following systems, either singly or in combination, are widely used: administrative placement, self-placement, and placement tests.

It should be recognized that no placement system is totally accurate. The language program should be flexible enough to allow students to change courses or levels within the first two weeks of instruction, so that they can continue their language study in the class best suited to their backgrounds and needs.

Administrative placement

Incoming students fill out a form providing information about their background: years of study of the foreign language (with dates), type of courses, grades received, general grade point average, travel or residence abroad, reasons for continuing foreign language study (to develop conversational skills, to read professional journals, etc.). The foreign language department uses these questionnaires to place the students in the appropriate courses.

Self-placement

In self-placement, students receive detailed descriptions of each of the courses offered, together with statements of the type of background required. On the basis of the above information, students select the courses they feel best suited for. This system has been used at Boston College for the past five years: descriptive material is sent to all incoming undergraduates in July, and they sign up for language courses by mail. According to Flagg (22), the success of the system is due in part to faculty cooperation at the beginning of the fall term in advising those students who have been poorly placed.

Placement tests

Placement tests are usually administered when the students arrive at the school. To be efficient, they should be easy to administer and quick to score. Moreover, the school should have a fairly reliable system of converting the test scores to course placement.

Commercial tests, such as the MLA Coop Tests (46) and the Pimsleur Proficiency Tests (60), require no test preparation and can be quickly scored if a school uses only listening and reading portions which have multiple-choice answer sheets. The disadvantage is that, depending on the language program and the types of incoming students, these tests do not always provide reliable placement.

Departmental tests, with specific sections on grammar, vocabulary, and the language skills, are often more accurate than the commercial tests, because they have been prepared with a specific curriculum in view. The time spent in their preparation is a worthwhile investment if the test results in the accurate placing of new students; after all, the same placement test can be used year after year. When departmental tests require two or three hours of administration time, and many hours of hand scoring by departmental personnel, they become less and less practical as the number of entering students increases.

Dictations of varying degrees of difficulty can be adapted as placement tests (Oller and Streiff, 54). They require less administration time and less scoring time than most departmental tests, and often provide equally effective results.

Cloze tests (Aitken, 1; Brière et al., 8; Hanzeli, 27) are also being used as quick departmental placement tests. In the cloze test, an authentic passage in the foreign language is selected, and then each fifth, sixth, or seventh word is systematically deleted. Students write in the missing words and receive a point for each word which is either the same as, or an acceptable substitute for, the original word of the text. Here is an easy sample cloze item from Aitken (1, p. 61):

> When the big man ______ driving his big car ______ the road he met ______ small man in a ______ car driving up the ______.

Ozete (55) has developed a reading-input version of the cloze test in which the students are presented with two choices for each blank and are told to select the appropriate one. Here is a sample item (p. 566):

> fue
> Aquella Navidad _______ alegre para un pobre:
> que
> anochecer   una
> _______, que no tenía trabajo _______ el otoño.
> Andrés   desde

The distractors are selected from the same passage with the help of a random number table. Using Ozete's system, teachers can readily transform any selection into a reading input test.

Noise tests are dictations in which the voice reading the sentences on the tape is partially obscured by static or some other extraneous acoustical signal. Current research seems to indicate that these tests are effective in separating students by levels of proficiency (Gradman and Spolsky, 26).

The face validity of the noise test may be increased by providing contexts for each item. Gaies et al. (24, p. 54) present the following sample items. The student only writes down the sentence which comes after the tone.

> Despite subsequent events which were to bring his administration to an end, former President Nixon's re-election was one of the most one-sided victories in American political history.
> (TONE)
> *Only two states were won by his opponent.*

A similar technique may be used for dictation items in which no noise is added.

Vicars (81) found that both the contextualized noise test and the dictation noise test provided results which correlated highly with student scores on the usual three-hour placement test of the Middlebury College French School.

Testing the outcomes

Too few people seem to realize that the quality of the testing program determines in large part the quality of the teaching program: the relationship between teaching and testing is complementary and symbiotic. Whereas most teacher-training programs provide students with an effective introduction to classroom techniques and lesson planning, many fail to train students in foreign language testing.

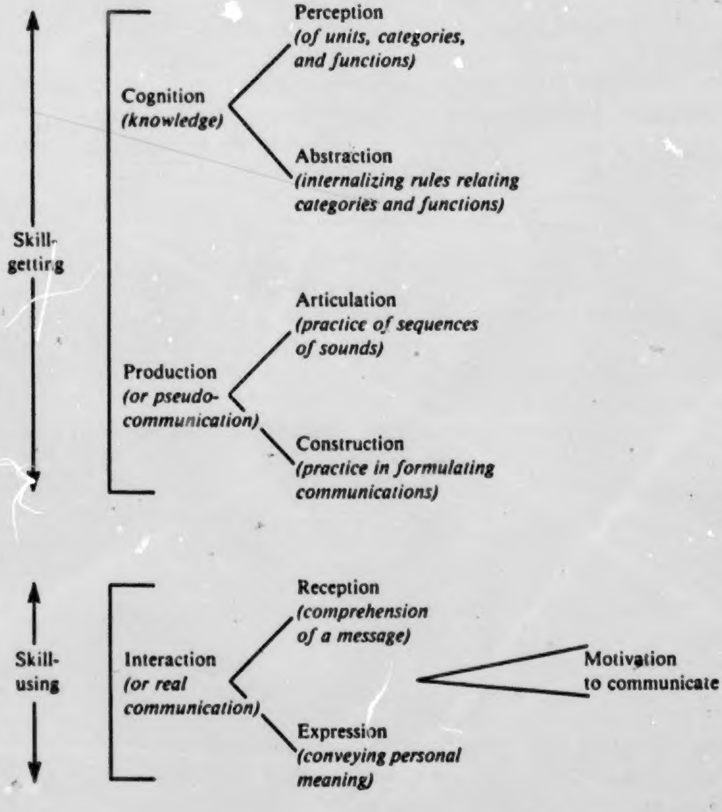
A good deal more goes into effective testing than most people would have us believe. Good planning not only makes for good teaching; it also makes for good testing.

Defining the objectives

Before preparing a classroom test, it is necessary to define the goals and objectives of the specific foreign language courses. The handbook by Valette and Disick (80) presents a complete taxonomy of foreign language objectives together with sample testing techniques.

Rivers (64) has developed the following model which delineates the processes involved in learning to communicate (p. 4).

Although skill-getting goals and activities are important in the learning


Skill-getting
Cognition *(knowledge)*
Perception *(of units, categories, and functions)*
Abstraction *(internalizing rules relating categories and functions)*
Production *(or pseudo-communication)*
Articulation *(practice of sequences of sounds)*
Construction *(practice in formulating communications)*
Skill-using
Interaction *(or real communication)*
Reception *(comprehension of a message)*
Expression *(conveying personal meaning)*
Motivation to communicate

of a new language, for it is necessary to understand vocabulary and structure and to acquire a new sound system and perhaps also a new alphabet, the major goal for both students and teachers should be the use of the language in real communication situations. Whether the students learn to converse about everyday topics with native speakers, to understand foreign language films and radio broadcasts, or to read and understand foreign language books and periodicals, the emphasis should be on the use of real language in a real situation: all language practice should be directed toward skill-using activities.

Preparing the basis for assigning course grades

Given the importance ascribed to grades by teachers, students, and parents, it is essential that grades actually reflect progress in achieving the desired outcomes of the foreign language program. A basic rule of thumb is *test what you teach*, and *emphasize in your teaching*, in order of importance, *those skills you want to develop in your students.*

One method for visualizing the relative importance of course outcomes is to prepare a percentage breakdown of goals in terms of their relative importance. First, determine which percentage of the grade will reflect skill-getting exercises and which percentage will reflect skill-using activities. In a first-year language course, this percentage might be established as follows:

65 percent skill-getting
35 percent skill-using

The next step is to determine how each of the above categories will be further subdivided. For instance:

Skill-getting	*Percentage of time*
• class preparation (accuracy and regularity of homework)	10
• performance in classroom activities and exercises (related to learning grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation)	10
• unit tests on grammar and vocabulary	20
• reciting of dialogues; other pronunciation tests	5
• final examination on grammar and vocabulary	20

Skill-using		
• written compositions	5	
• reading comprehension test	5	
• participation in oral communication activities (skits, games, conversations, etc)	15	
• final examination in oral communication	10	
	100 percent	TOTAL

The categories and percentages assigned will vary from teacher to teacher and from school to school. In fact, students may participate in the preparation of such a chart. The important thing is that both teachers and students know at the beginning of the year exactly on what basis grades will be assigned.

Sample techniques in the domain of skill-getting

This section treats sample techniques for evaluating how well students have mastered the elements of language: the sound system, the spelling system, vocabulary, and grammar. Generally tests in the domain of skill-getting are *discrete-point tests:* they focus on specific linguistic elements and usually lend themselves to objective scoring methods.

Acquisition of the sound system

Learning to recognize and reproduce sounds in the foreign language is a first step toward acquiring a native-like command of that language. Although people have become fluent in another language while retaining a noticeable "foreign" accent, acquiring near-native command of the new sound system is a goal of most foreign language students.

For beginning students, one of the first steps in sound system acquisition should be the ability to recognize the particular foreign language under study. Students will not be able to pronounce a sound they have not recognized as being part of the language they are learning. From that point, students should learn to contrast sounds which belong to the foreign language and sounds which belong to their native language. Finally, beginning students should learn to differentiate between phonemes, that is, between sounds in the target language that affect the meaning of the word. Here are some sample test items.

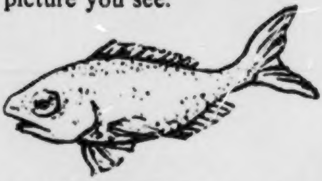
Language discrimination: You will hear ten short recordings. Listen

carefully to each one. If the selection is French (the target language), mark A. If it is not French, mark B.
1 Quand j'ai soif, je prends du thé.
2 No me gusta el té; prefiero la cerveza.
3 Ich auch! Wenn ich Durst habe, trinke ich Bier.

Differentiation: Of the three choices you hear, identify the word or sentence which is different from the other two.
Spanish: pero perro perro
French: Il a tort. Il a tort. Il adore.
Answers: A, C (Clark, 17, pp. 44–45)

For intermediate and advanced students, a situational context may be introduced, and exercises can be designed using and contrasting known vocabulary, verb tenses, and structure items. These tests demonstrate to the student how important good pronunciation is, as one sound pronounced incorrectly can completely alter the meaning of a sentence.

Key word plus picture: Select the phrase which correctly describes the picture you see.



A. Voici un poison.
(*Here is a poison.*)
B. Voici un poisson.
(*Here is a fish.*)
Answer: B (Valette, 77, p. 81)

It is also important that students recognize the role which stress and intonation play in altering the meaning of a sentence.

Recognition of intonation and stress: The students hear a recording of a sentence which is also printed in their test booklet. They mark the correct interpretation.
(tape): I'll help Ann. (spoken reluctantly)
(test booklet): I'll help Ann.
The speaker is ...
A. reluctant to help Ann.
B. eager to help Ann.
C. making a plain statement.
Answer: A (Heaton, 29, p. 64)

In addition to testing the students' perception, it is equally important to measure their production. Pronunciation and intonation tests should be designed to take into consideration those sounds and patterns of the foreign language which are different enough from the native language to pose a problem. Tests of this sort can range from student repetition of sentences to reading aloud of unfamiliar material (with the emphasis in grading being solely on the reproduction of sounds and sound patterns determined in advance). For examples, see Clark (17), Harris (28), Valette (77).

Acquisition of the writing system

For languages with a Roman alphabet and regular spelling patterns, the acquisition of the writing system is relatively easy. For languages such as French, however, which have a highly irregular orthographic system, it is necessary to continue to test spelling up through the advanced levels. Acquisition of the writing system usually is tested via dictations. Whether in *spot dictations* (where certain words are deleted from a written passage, and the students must write them in after hearing the passage read) or in *full dictations* (writing everything the teacher says), the students are required to spell the words in a situational context. The context is especially necessary for languages such as French and English where sounds may have several different spellings and homonyms are frequent (e.g., *quel, qu'elle;* rays, raise). The spelling dictation is most effective when it is corrected immediately, perhaps by having the students exchange papers.

Acquisition of vocabulary

Learning a foreign language entails acquiring a new vocabulary and knowing when and how to use it. Vocabulary is assimilated most effectively through extensive practice in meaningful situations. The following are examples of ways to test vocabulary acquisition through each of the four skills:

> *Understanding vocabulary: simple commands.* Students hear a series of commands and indicate whether it is possible or not for a person to carry them out.
> Sit on the ceiling (Swaffar and Woodruff, 72, p. 28).
> *Testing vocabulary through speaking: target language definitions.* The student hears a definition and provides the key word.
> *Cue:* Name the object you would use to remove the lid from a can of soup.
> *Response:* A can opener (Valette, 77, p. 135).
> *Testing vocabulary through reading: multiple-choice format.* Select the word that best completes the sentence.
> My drivers license _______ at the end of the month.
> A. expires B. passes out C. retires D. concludes
> Answer: A (Heaton, 29, p. 47).
> *Testing vocabulary through writing: word association.* For each word you see, give four words which are associated in meaning but which are not from the same root.

Cue: la guerra
Possible answers: il soldato, la battaglia, la pace, morire, ferire, uccidere (Boyd, 7, p. 150)

Acquisition of grammar and structure

Over the past two decades, foreign language theoreticians have debated whether grammar and structure should be presented inductively or deductively, whether paradigms or patterns were the more effective vehicle of presentation, whether grammatical terminology should be introduced or avoided. Recently Carroll (10), in reviewing the research in learning theory, concluded that it was advisable to "provide descriptions and analyses of *how* the foreign language is put together" and to provide "meaningful contexts in which materials can be practiced and reviewed." (pp. 144–145)

If students wish to function in the foreign language, they must acquire control over the grammar and structures of the new language. Since testing in its format and emphases should parallel classroom work, the current trend is toward providing meaningful contexts not only for exercises but also for test items. The following sample grammar test items, moreover, present only forms which are *grammatically correct.*

> *Testing grammar via listening: identification of forms.* A French girl will talk about certain events. If the verb is in the present tense, mark A for present events. If the verb is in the *passé composé,* mark B for past events.
>
> J'ai visité Québec en janvier.
>
> *Answer:* B (Valette and Valette, 74, Ach. Test 1/1).
>
> *Testing grammar via speaking: transformations.* Betty has none of the advantages that Nancy does. Describe Betty's position.
>
> Nancy has a rich uncle. She is going to Bermuda for spring vacation.
>
> *Answer:* Betty doesn't have a rich uncle. She's not going to Bermuda for spring vacation. (Valette, 77, p. 237).
>
> *Testing grammar via reading: fill-in items.* Teachers traditionally use fill-in writing items to test control of grammar. If new forms are taught in situational contexts, such contexts should also be used in the classroom tests. In the following item, the students complete the answers by filling in the blanks with the appropriate forms of the underlined verbs.
>
> Qu'est-ce que vous *devez* faire ce soir?
> Je ________ étudier.
> Paul ________ aider son père.
> Et mes cousines ________ aller à une conférence.
> *Answers: dois, doit, doivent* (Valette and Valette, 74, Ach. Test 3/3).

Sample techniques in the domain of skill-using

There is nothing more rewarding for language students than the awareness that they can use the foreign language to *communicate.* Skill-using is the ultimate goal of all foreign language instruction, and the excitement generated by effective communication should be shared by teacher and student.

In the domain of skill-using, Valette (78) distinguishes between language production tests and language comprehension tests. The language production tests require the students to express themselves either in speaking or in writing: these tests are valid measures of the ability to produce the new language, but they frequently suffer from low reliability in the area of scoring. The language comprehension tests measure whether students can understand what they hear or read: these types of tests, which have been perfected by the Educational Testing Service, can attain high degrees of validity and reliability. (For an introduction to the topics of reliability and validity, see Diederich, 19; Ingram, 32.)

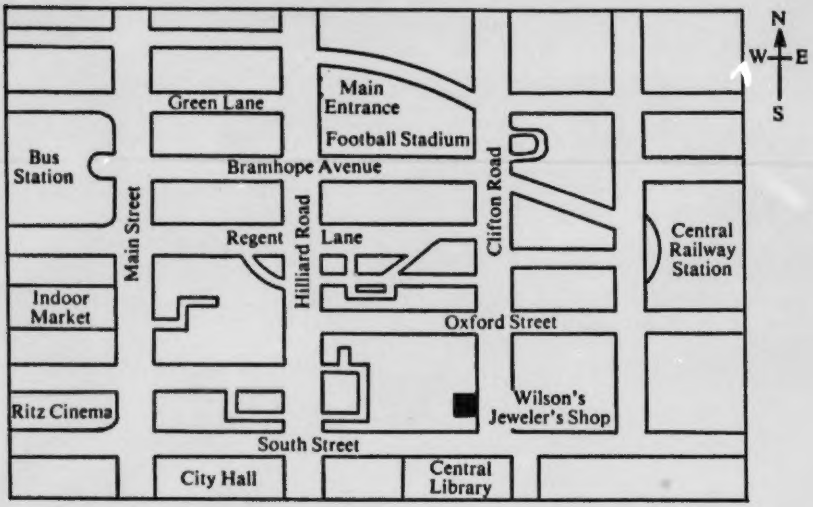
In this chapter, we shall divide the skill-using domain into oral communication and written communication. Some courses may focus more heavily on oral communication, while others stress written communication. It is the responsibility of the teacher to determine the emphases, and consequently the testing needs, of each course.

Listening comprehension

Listening comprehension tests involve the extraction of specific material from either a recording or a live monologue (or dialogue).

> *Selective listening:* The student is assigned an imaginary identity. For instance, the student is told that he is in a train in the Frankfurt railway station. His destination is Bonn. The student then hears a series of announcements over the loudspeaker in the train station. One of these announcements tells all Bonn passengers to change trains. The student must identify this relevant piece of information and note it in writing (Valette, 77, p. 109).
>
> *Telephone messages:* Imagine you are visiting a German family. You are at home alone when the phone rings. The person on the line insists on giving you a message. Take notes as the person talks to you, and then write up the message for your host in English.
>
> *Tape:* Ich bin die Nachbarin, Frau Müller. Ich wollte Frau Schmidt sprechen. Würden Sie ihr bitte sagen, dass ich morgen um 8 Uhr vorbeikomme und dann können wir zusammen einkaufen gehen. (I am the neighbor, Frau Müller. I wanted to talk to Frau Schmidt. Would you please tell her that I will come by tomorrow morning at eight and we can go shopping together.) (Schulz and Bartz, 67, p. 84).

In listening comprehension items of the above type, students are scored on how many of the important facts they have understood. Frequently students are allowed to reply in their native language, for the focus is on obtaining information, and not on expression.


N
W
E
S
Green Lane
Main Entrance
Football Stadium
Bus Station
Bramhope Avenue
Main Street
Hilliard Road
Clifton Road
Regent Lane
Central Railway Station
Indoor Market
Oxford Street
Wilson's Jeweler's Shop
Ritz Cinema
South Street
City Hall
Central Library

Understanding a longer narrative: To reduce the memory factor, a longer narrative may be interrupted by short questions. The following sample is the first part of a longer item prepared by Heaton (29, pp. 70–72).

A: Have you heard about the raid on the jewellery shop in Clifton Road?

B: Yes, in fact, I saw part of the chase. It was terrible.

A: You saw part of the chase? Good gracious. I've only heard a very vague report about it. What exactly happened?

B: Well, the thieves planned to rob the shop—you know, Wilson's in Clifton Road—just after it'd opened early yesterday morning.

A: In broad daylight? I didn't know that.

B: They planned to arrive as the jewellery was being taken from the safe into the big display window. They arrived in a large red car which they parked on the opposite side of the road. Can you see the place on this map I've got?

(1) X: Write the letter A on your map at the place where the thieves parked the car.

A. How many robbers were there?

B: Three. One waited inside the car and the other two walked over to the shop, carrying large briefcases. Once inside the shop, they made the manager of the shop and his assistant lie down on the floor while they filled the briefcases with jewellery. What they didn't know, however, was that another assistant was in the room at the back of the shop. He had caught sight of the two thieves and had pressed a small alarm bell. At that precise moment, a police patrol car was at ... what's it called? ... I forget now, but it's the junction between the Ritz and the road that runs past the library.

(2) X: Write the letter B at the junction referred to by the speaker.
A: So things went wrong for the robbers from the start?
B: Yes, by the time the two robbers were leaving the jeweller's, the police car was already turning into Clifton Road. The two men hadn't even time to close one of the car doors properly, and a frightened passer-by heard one of the men tell the driver to take the first turning off Clifton Road. A moment later, one of the briefcases fell out as their car swung left.
(3) X: Where did the thieves lose one of the briefcases? Write the letter C on the spot.
B: But that wasn't the end of their misfortunes. When they glanced back, they saw the police car gaining on them.
A: Didn't they realise that it was all over?
B: No, they accelerated. They turned left and then they turned right. Then they swung into a narrow street and stopped a few yards down it at the side of a second car—most likely their get-away car.
(4) X: Where was the get-away car parked? Write D on your map.

Oral expression

In a test of oral expression, the focus is on conveying meaning rather than on the grammaticality of the message. Students are told what to say, but not how to say it, and they may use any means at their disposal (gestures, facial expressions, etc.) to get their message across.

Communication tests do not lend themselves to easy grading, and as such, pose a problem for the teacher: if he or she chooses not to test communication skills at all, the students will never believe that communication is an important skill, and will not attempt to develop it. If, on the other hand, the teacher chooses to grade communication tests like skill-getting tests, the results will prove meaningless, if, indeed, they are obtained at all. For students who are working hard to learn the rudiments of communication, a grade of 95 or a grade of 55 percent can be both misleading and harmful. Students need to be encouraged as they make their first attempts at communicating, and every effort must be rewarded (Linder, 44, p. 20). Just as communication tests are different and varied, scoring systems should be different and varied as well. There are several scales which measure the student's performance based on the kind and amount of information transmitted (see Clark, 17, p. 93; Jakobovits and Gordon, 35, p 54; Valette, 77, pp. 157–63).

> *Commentary:* From among a series of pictures of fashion models cut out of newspapers or magazines, a student is asked to select four, and then must say something about each item of clothing in each of the pictures, as if he or she were the commentator at the fashion show.
>
> *Scoring:* Effectiveness of communication rated as Excellent, Good, or Fair, (Linder, 44, p. 56)
>
> *Please explain . . . :* A series of cards is prepared with activities which require a description (how to make scrambled eggs, how to use a washing machine, etc.). Each student selects a card, and must explain or describe the activity to the rest of the class.
>
> *Scoring:* Very good = students understood the entire explanation
> Good = students understood most of the explanation
> Fair = students only understood part of the explanation (Linder, 44. p. 58)

Any type of oral communication activity (e.g., those described by Bate, 4; Berwald, 5; Christensen, 15, 16) may function as a test by the addition of a rating system. Although there will always be a degree of subjectivity in the scoring, the main purpose of such tests is to reward students for their efforts at oral self-expression.

Conversation

A test of conversation may be administered to as few as one or two people or to a whole class simultaneously. Conversation is actually a combination of the skills of listening comprehension and oral expression, and as such, is the highest and most complex type of communication test. The choice of topics is limited only by the teacher's creativity and resourcefulness.

A test of directed conversation differs from directed dialogue, in that the students are given suggested topics to speak about, but they are not told exactly what to say.

> *At the travel agency:* Two students are tested simultaneously. They carry out the following dialogue:

> *Client:* Ask for information about the train departures from a certain city.
> *Employee:* Give two departure times.
> *Client:* Decide on one and give your reason for the decision.
> *Employee:* Sell him a ticket.
> *Scoring:* Very good = the students made themselves understood with few errors
> Good = the students made themselves understood with noticeable errors
> Satisfactory = the students tried, but were often very difficult to understand (Linder, 44, pp. 69–70)

In tests of free conversation, students are free to determine what they want to say and how they will say it.

> *Finding your way in a big city:* The class is divided into two groups. Half of the students are given maps of various cities. A packet of cards containing the names of various places in the cities is prepared. The students with the maps are "police officers" and the others are "lost tourists." Each tourist must find an officer to help find his or her way. The tourists pick a card from the packet which indicates their destination, and they ask the police officers for instructions on how to get there. They must follow the directions and indicate on an unmarked map the location to which they have been directed.
> *Scoring:* If the tourist arrives at the correct location, the police officer has given good directions and they both pass the test. If not, the tourist must draw another destination and ask another officer for instructions (Linder, 44, p. 73).
> *Guided interview:* The teacher or a teacher aide has a guided interview with each student. The test lasts from five to fifteen minutes, depending on the proficiency of the student, and the conversation is recorded. Pettit (58) suggests a modified scoring system using the 0 to 5 scale of the Foreign Service Institute which also forms the basis of the Language Proficiency Interview (41) mentioned earlier in this chapter. (For a more complete description of the FSI scale, see Valette, 77, pp. 157–61.)

Reading comprehension

In a real communication situation, people use the reading skill to obtain certain information. (What will tomorrow's weather be? Who won the soccer match? What time does Tour A leave and what places will we visit?) For those interested in learning a foreign language for professional reasons, reading material may consist of scientific research or magazine articles on a specific topic that is non-language oriented. The following items may be used on classroom tests to measure reading comprehension.

Skimming: Marylou is holding tryouts for a play. She has asked those interested to drop her a line indicating whether they can come on Monday, April 5 or Wednesday, April 7. You will now read the postcards she received in today's mail. Scan them quickly and sort them into four groups: A = people who can come April 5; B = people who can come April 7; C = people who cannot make those two dates; D = mail that has nothing to do with the tryouts.

1. Marylou, I'd love to try out for the part of Julie. I'll be there on Monday. See you then.
2 Dear Marylou, Sorry I can't make either date . . . but I do want to participate. Could you suggest another date?
3 Dear Marylou, I am having a surprise party for Paul on Wednesday, April 7. Do you think you and Marty could come over? Be here at nine. (Valette, 77, p. 203)

Obtaining information: short answer format. The students are given copies of a "places to visit" brochure, and are asked questions about the information in it. Some sample questions might include the following: It is nine o'clock Monday morning. Which places are open? You are fifteen years old. Where can you get in free? Where could you go to get an aerial view of the city? (Valette, 77, pp. 204–5).

Writing

Writing is probably the most difficult skill to develop, but there are many activities that provide practice. Paragraph writing and letter writing, for example, are useful communication activities which also teach organization and style. As foreign language writing skills are developed, students may find that their writing skills in English are improving.

Paragraph writing: To test the student's ability to construct a unified paragraph (including introduction, body, and conclusion), the teacher could use the following set of instructions for an ESL class:

Go to the school cafeteria. Watch Americans eat, talk, move around the room, pick up or put down things. Make a note of these gestures. Write a descriptive paragraph about your observations of one or more people (Friend, 23, p. 23)

Letter writing: Students are provided guidelines for writing a letter. (The following directions and scoring system are adapted from Barrera-Vidal, 3, pp. 44–45, 60.)

You have a Spanish friend who is now back in Madrid. When he left, he told you to come see him if you were ever in Spain. Write your friend a letter containing the following elements:

a the dates of your trip (arrival and departure)
b your hotel (name, address)
c a possible date when you could get together
d your interests (movies, theater, exhibits, etc.)
e the possibility of bringing him something from your country.

N[illegible]

a Do not write more than one or two sentences for each element.
b Treat the above elements in order, and do not omit any.
c Give today's date.
d Use the appropriate expressions to open and close the letter.

Scoring: Maximum score: 15 points

1 Content: 1 point for each element that was appropriately treated.
2 Appropriateness of expression:
    5 points—fluent and well organized; appropriate use of idiomatic expressions and vocabulary.
    3 points—The letter is appropriate, but it sounds "translated" and contains some errors.
    1 point—the letter contains many errors, but occasionally an appropriate word or expression is used.
3 Accuracy of expression:
    5 points—The letter is entirely or almost entirely correct from the point of view of grammar and spelling.
    3 points—Over half of the letter is correct.
    1 point—Only small parts of the letter are correct.
    0 points—Zero is only given if the letter does not at all correspond to the instructions, or if the candidate memorized a letter that is unrelated to the topic.

Testing culture and cross-cultural understanding

One of the aims of foreign language teaching is to bring students to the realization that "The American Way" is not the *only* way, and furthermore, that America owes much to Western European civilization as well as to the hundreds of ethnic groups which make up the American population.

In teaching and testing culture, it is important to avoid the easy stereotypes and, in the case of contemporary culture, to remain up to date in this era of changing life-styles and values. Seelye (68, Chap. 9) and Valette (77, Chap. 9) provide guidelines for preparing classroom culture tests. Here are three sample items:

Knowledge of etiquette: When a Guatemalan gets up from the table after eating, he_______

• A. says thank you, or some other pleasantry
B. just smiles
C. says nothing, but does not smile
D. says nothing, but taps his chest lightly (Seelye, 68, p. 151)

It should be noted that multiple-choice items of this sort should be tried out with natives of the culture to determine whether the item is clear and unambiguous.

Knowledge of facts: Multiple-choice and true-false questions permit the rapid testing of factual knowledge. Boyd (7) suggests the following sample items:

La più antica università del monde è quella di
A. Siena B. Pisa •C. Bologna D. Napoli
"Città Eterna" si riferisce alla città di
A. Venezia B. Milano •C. Roma D. Napoli (p. 153)

Interpreting cultural referents: As students begin to read and listen to authentic material in the foreign language, they have to know how to interpret references to cultural facts and phenomena. Tests of this sort may be based on texts or consist of discrete items.

> A German pen pal writes that his sister is attending boarding school and is in the "*Unter Sekunda.*" About how old do you think Helga is? *Answer:* about 15 (Valette, 77, p. 274).

Just as the teaching of culture is often integrated into the language course, so may culture also provide the framework for language tests. An excellent example of a language proficiency test in which all items are built around contemporary cultural referents is the Volkshochschul–Verband test for *Zertificat Spanisch* (Barrera-Vidal, 3, pp. 55–73) and *Zertificat Deutsch* (82).

Administering the classroom test

After the teacher has determined the goals of the course, prepared a chart showing what percent of the grade will be determined by the various types of tests, and selected the appropriate test items, the test must be prepared and administered. In his "Guidelines for Classroom Testing," Chastain (14, pp. 489–97) stresses the need for clear directions and careful advance preparation.

Testing in the traditional classroom

In the traditional classroom, all students take the test at the same time and on the same day. If large numbers of students are tested, the teacher may need several days to correct and return the papers. Nolan (52) has found it helpful to his students to distribute two copies of the test paper. When they have finished the test, they are instructed to write their answers onto the second copy, and turn in one of the tests. In this way, students can study the test after class, comparing their results and looking up words or expressions which they found difficult. They may be asked to complete and correct the second copy for homework and turn it in at the next class. The teacher may wish to average the two test scores, or to give students a certain amount of points for the work done at home. Besides providing immediate feedback, this technique also serves to show the students that tests are not something to be feared, but rather, are another procedure in the learning process (pp. 303–4). Another way to reduce test anxiety, according to psychologists, is to give short, frequent quizzes (Jakobovits, 34, p. 113).

Testing in the individualized classroom

In the individualized classroom, students take the tests when they feel they are prepared. If they fail a test, they have the opportunity to take it over until they obtain a passing score. Disick (20, Chap. 13) provides practical suggestions for organizing and simplifying test administration in individualized classes.

Reducing test anxiety

Some students become so worried at the prospect of a test that they perform very poorly. For them, the classroom test does not provide a reliable measure of what has been learned. Sharing with students the percent chart which shows how grades are awarded may serve to reassure students that the tests do not constitute the entire final grade. In cases of extreme test anxiety, the teacher may excuse the student from taking the test altogether, and may replace the test with a take-home project or other language activity. The student will also be graded more heavily on classroom performance.

Interpreting test results

There is no such thing as the "perfect test." Although the score a student obtains on a carefully prepared test with high validity and objective scoring is more reliable than one on a poorly constructed test, there is always an element of measurement error present. Educational decisions should never be based uniquely on the scores of a specific test. There should not be an absolute "cut-off score" on aptitude or placement tests. A student's final examination grade should be considered in the light of overall performance.

Similarly, comparative test scores should not be too narrowly interpreted. The student who receives a score of 550 on the Spanish Achievement Test of the College Board is not necessarily better prepared than the student who only scores 540. The student who receives 88 percent (B+) on a classroom midterm may know more than the one who receives 89 (A−). As Spolsky (71) pointed out, language testing is as much an art as it is a science.

Student performance on national tests

Comparative data may be used in two ways: to evaluate a given program over time, or to compare a program against national norms at a point in time. In many ways, use of national tests provides much more reliable information to the teacher wishing to rate his or her particular foreign language program than the use of classroom tests. A much greater margin or error exists when scoring a test for one individual student and comparing that student to others in the same class than when comparing a class average to a national average.

Detailed information on current commercial tests is available in Buros (9) and Savard (66). Valette (76) presents a comparative table of standardized tests in French administered by the Educational Testing Service and provides examples of all the items they contain.

Several of the professional language organizations sponsor annual language tests and award prizes to the winners in each category or level. (For information on the AATF French Contest write Sidney Teitelbaum, Box 86, Plainview, NY 11803. For information on the AATG German Tests write AATG Testing Program, 523 Building, Suite 201, Route 38, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034. For information on the AATSP Spanish Examinations, write Albert R. Turner, Glenbrook South High School, Glenview, IL 60025.)

Studies have been carried out on the effects of foreign language study on other areas of learning, as measured by such general tests as the Iowa tests and the Scholastic Aptitude Test. Research seems to indicate, for example, that the study of Latin may help to improve a student's measured verbal aptitude in English (Masciantonio, 45, pp. 377–79.) Other tests have indicated that foreign language study carries over to other courses, but validating research is still in progress.

Student performance on school or district-wide tests of general linguistic competence

Certain schools or school districts find that either by using commercial proficiency tests and developing their own set of local norms, or by developing their own global tests (dictations, cloze tests), they are in a better position to judge the progress or proficiency of their students and teachers.

Although these locally established norms may not correlate with national norms—a student in the 90th percentile in the district may only be in the 80th percentile nationally—they have the distinct advantage of assuring the district that certain objectives are being met.

Using test results to improve the foreign language program

Tests are diagnostic tools above all else, and teachers and students alike will profit most by using and interpreting them in this fashion, rather than by trying to determine who is the "smartest" and who is the "dumbest". Test results should not constitute the be-all and end-all of teaching.

What tests can do, however, is enable the teacher, or the school board, to analyze and evaluate the strengths and weaknesses in the foreign language program. If, for example, students in a particular school district score exceptionally low on the Advanced Placement Examination in Spanish as compared with the rest of the country, it would be advantageous to the district to re-evaluate their Spanish program in relation to their objectives to insure that they are teaching what they set out to teach. If they discover that the objectives and curriculum are in accord, then perhaps it is time to formulate new objectives. If a school consistently scores higher than the national average on standardized tests, or does consistently better than other schools on district-wide tests, then it is apparent that the school is doing something right. Perhaps teachers from that school could work with other schools to help them improve their programs. When administered and evaluated with care, tests can be the most valuable teaching tool that the foreign language department possesses.

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Stage 8

Looking at the Results

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Early in the Fall of 1977, the following letters were sent to the Center for Applied Linguistics by two classroom teachers:

> Rock Island, IL
> 9/27/77
>
> ERIC Clearinghouse on
> Languages and Linguistics
> 1611 N Kent Street
> Arlington, VA 22209
> Dear Sir:
>
> I have been asked by my principal to head a committee to review our foreign language curriculum, and, if necessary, to present suggestions for change. We offer Spanish, German, and French, I–IV.

Alice C. Omaggio (Ph.D., The Ohio State University) is Associate Director of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics at the Center for Applied Linguistics, Arlington, VA. She has taught French at the secondary and university level, supervised teaching assistants, conducted demonstration classes, and developed instructional materials in French. Her publications appear in the *ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series*, *Foreign Language Annals*, the *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *Modern Language Journal*, and *Language In Education: Theory and Practice*. She has developed workshop materials and has made presentations to teacher groups in several states. This past summer, she directed a course on methodology in developing communicative competence for an NEH Institute at Purdue University.

Do you have any ideas we might use? Your help will be appreciated. Where could I write for information?

Sincerely,

Kansas City, MO
10/20/77

Dear Dr. Omaggio:

As chairman of the Foreign Language Department of a small suburban school district that includes two junior and one senior high schools, I find myself having to evaluate our FL curriculum and set up a curriculum guide for the first time.

In desperation, I'm writing to you as I understand you have a file of material available.

As I have no funds available for this project, any material or information as well as suggestions that you may be able to forward to me will be most gratefully received. We teach French, Spanish, and German, grades 8–12.

Sincerely,

In an attempt to respond to these requests for help, I began to search ERIC and other sources for the alleged "file of material" on program evaluation, only to find that no such file existed—at least, not in a manageable form. Certainly, there are many documents, books, and articles purporting to deal with the problem of program evaluation, but few of these references deal specifically with assessment of the foreign language curriculum or address the needs of the classroom teacher who is a newcomer to the mystifying business of educational accountability. After reviewing the available resources, I designed a well-meaning (but inadequate) response, citing a few of the less convoluted discussions of program evaluation and suggesting a list of questions to use as a guide. I was not satisfied, however, that the teachers' needs had been answered. Throughout the following months, an effort was made to gather more information on the topic—through additional ERIC searches, conversations with colleagues active in the evaluation of foreign language programs, and the identification of general sources that promised to be of some help. This chapter, the result of that search, attempts to provide a synthesis of the best available knowledge on ways to evaluate the effectiveness of foreign language programs. Procedures that have worked well are outlined, an evaluation model is suggested, and a list of specific guidelines, checklists, and other resources is provided in the Appendix to this chapter.

What's all this fuss about evaluation?

Several forces have led in the last few years to a concern for educational evaluation, not the least of which is a general dissatisfaction with the quality of public education. Since the late 1960s shrinking financial support for school programs has ushered in an era of educational accountability. The public's faith in schools has been shaken, and taxpayers are cautious about spending money on programs without some kind of evidence that they are working. The golden days when the teacher always "knew best" are gone. Parents are (justifiably) horrified to find that their Johnny can't read, his sister can't subtract, and little Eleanor apparently can't understand a word of French after a *whole year* of instruction. Citizens' advisory groups are becoming more involved in local school programs, and they are demanding loudly that these programs be evaluated.

Parents are not the only ones asking schools to justify their existence. New financial support patterns—notably, federal funding—bring with the dollars demands for evaluative data. All ESEA Title I and Title III projects must be evaluated if project directors want to continue to receive support.

Yet another group is concerned with the success of programs: the teachers and administrators directly involved in their operation. Many teachers are genuinely interested in improving instruction, as their attendance at local, regional, and national professional meetings indicates. These teachers deserve to have the benefits of a well-designed, nonthreatening program evaluation that will point out their successes as well as their shortcomings. Furthermore, the feeling is strong that evaluation should be something that they do for themselves and for their own purposes, and that once completed, the results can be translated into action. Evaluation is of absolutely no use if nothing comes of it, and too often "nothing" is precisely what has resulted after the voluminous paperwork has been filed somewhere, and the evaluators have all gone home.

Popham (15), in a sensible book entitled *Educational Evaluation,* cautions educators not to ascribe worth to just any kind of evaluative activity. "Some educational evaluations will be little more than public relations rituals to satisfy the taxpayer. Others will be well-intentioned but poorly designed foolishness" (p. 7). Popham points out that many federal evaluative efforts have been less than noteworthy: "Federal officials directing ESEA Title I and Title III programs and external reviewers all concluded that the pool of evaluation expertise among the nation's educators resembled a puddle instead of an ocean" (p. 4). Hartwig (10) also expresses some negative feelings about the current state of the art, and points out why many efforts to refine and improve education have met with limited success:

> Teachers and administrators have been bombarded with many unfamiliar terms and have been exposed to complex, highly sophisticated schematic diagrams and flow charts. Behavioral objectives, measur-

> able objectives, program objectives, product objectives, process objectives, mission objectives, product outcomes, milestones, baselines, PPBS, management design, program auditing, systems analysis, cost effectiveness, pre-program evaluation, interim evaluation, on-going evaluation, terminal evaluation, performance contracting, accountability, etc., have created a state of confusion among educators that has impeded progress in adapting managerial concepts to the process of education (p. 1)

No wonder so many teachers and administrators go home with headaches.

What is evaluation, anyway?

One reason that program evaluation often seems so confusing is that people have various concepts of what the term means. TenBrink (22) asked preservice and inservice teachers to answer the question, "What comes to your mind when you hear the word 'evaluation'?" The most frequently occurring responses were:

Preservice Teachers	*Inservice Teachers*
Tests	Tests
Grades	Measurement
Achievement	Grades
Unfair	Accountability
Judgment	Invasion of privacy (p. 4)

TenBrink's word association test gives us several insights into the current state of the art. First, evaluation is often thought of in the very narrow sense of "tests" and "grades." Second, teachers very often feel threatened by the concept, considering evaluation practices unfair, judgmental, and an invasion of privacy. Some teachers feel extremely hostile when an evaluation is imposed upon them by "outsiders," especially when they have not been involved in the planning process. It stands to reason that any evaluative effort will be a dismal failure if the attitude of those involved is negative from the beginning. Miller (13) points out that teachers often are suspicious and fearful of evaluation. "These fears are real, as well as greatly inflated. The . . . fear about evaluation is usually inversely proportional to knowledge about it" (p. 11). Teachers need accurate and complete information about what "evaluation" is. They should also be involved in designing the evaluation plan from its inception, or the effort will have little impact on improving instruction. After all, the purpose of evaluation is not to spy, but to improve.

A review of the massive literature on program evaluation reveals that even the specialists disagree on what the concept means. Popham (15) states that the activity most often mistaken for evaluation is educational research. Although both educational evaluation and research are forms of disciplined inquiry that use measurement devices, collect and analyze data, and involve formal reporting techniques, he suggests that there are some important differences between the two concepts:

1 *Focus:* The intentions of the researcher and the evaluator are different. The researcher uses the data to draw conclusions; the evaluator uses the data to make decisions.
2 *Generalizability:* The researcher attempts to generalize the results to a wider application; the evaluator makes no attempt to generalize beyond the immediate situation.
3 *Value Judgments:* Research does not necessarily attach a value judgment to a discovered relationship; the role of the evaluator, however, is to determine the worth of something in achieving stated goals.

Provus (16), Randall (17), and Stufflebeam (21) all contend that research designs are inadequate and inappropriate for most evaluation purposes. Raths (18) also concludes that curriculum evaluation should be seen as a process distinct from research in its narrowest sense, and suggests that it is a much more complicated undertaking than the simple experiment.

In order to provide a comprehensive view of the evaluation process, several definitions of the term "program evaluation" have been selected and listed below. (Italics have been added for emphasis.)

> "Systematic educational evaluation consists of a *formal assessment of the worth of educational phenomena*" (Popham, 15, p. 8).
>
> "Evaluation is a *form of intelligence operation* to help the curriculum maker in his a) choice of material, b) in his approach, and c) in his manner of setting tasks for the learner" (Bruner, 3, p. 7)
>
> "It is generally agreed that evaluation means *appraisal of something ... against established criteria*" (Reynolds, 19, p. 7).
>
> "Program evaluation is the *process of determining the value or effectiveness of an activity for the purposes of decision-making*" (Law and Bronson, 12, p. 22).
>
> "The purposes of evaluation are to *determine if students are changing in the hoped-for way; to determine which instructional elements, curriculum components, learning settings, and program activities have the greatest positive effect on learning; and to assess the degree of discrepancy between learning objectives and performance*" (Golub, 7, p. 28).

> "Evaluation means different things to different people. For example, it is *judging the worth of a program* (Scriven, 1967). It is *describing a program as fully as possible* (Stake, 1967). It is *documenting how well program objectives are met* (Tyler, 1942). It is *providing useful information to decision makers* (Stufflebeam, 1967). It is all of these, and combinations of these, and more things besides." (Grotelueschen & Gooler, 9, p. 1).
>
> "Evaluation is *continuous and informal.* Buying a car, selecting a school, determining the relative merits and trade-offs of attending the parent-teachers meeting represent evaluative efforts. So does the decision to manufacture Edsels. And to stop. Evaluation is *monitoring your existence in your society*" (Ibid, p. 6).
>
> "Curriculum evaluation . . . is a *problem-solving process*" (Gephart, 6, p. 255).

Who wants to know?

Perhaps some of the fuzziness associated with the term "program evaluation" results from fuzzy thinking about the purpose of the evaluation and the intended audience. Program evaluations can be conducted for all sorts of reasons and at various levels. Whenever an evaluation is undertaken, we need to state clearly *what* we want to know and *who* wants to know it. We can look at foreign language programs at the international, national, state, regional, district, building, or classroom level, or even in terms of individual students, depending on whether we want an "aerial view of the topography, or a rapid tour of selected points of interest, or a visit to a particular place long enough to get to know the inhabitants" (Hersom, 11, p. 271). Hersom proposes that curriculum designers and evaluators would be more successful if they conceptualized their tasks according to the scope of the endeavor and were more precise in their purposes. This implies that "evaluators would have to be satisfied with somewhat less grandiose designs than have been used recently" (p. 273). By identifying their evaluation activity in relation to one or more specific problems in a given setting, curriculum specialists, administrators, and teachers would find the task much more manageable. Exploring everything in the district from the supply of paper towels in the restrooms to the use of blackboard space is tiresome as well as self-defeating. Furthermore, needed changes are likely to be stated in concrete terms when the scope of the inquiry is limited.

The distinction between formative and summative evaluation is useful as we consider the purpose of an evaluation. *Formative* evaluation is conducted during the operation of a program or instructional unit. It implies a "fine-tuning" approach to evaluating the effectiveness of a given program, allowing for "midcourse corrections" as students progress toward attaining specified objectives (Law and Bronson, 12). It is a self-correcting process, a prospective approach by which the evaluator/teacher can make decisions about needed changes when a certain aspect of the program is not working well (Stufflebeam, 21). *Summative* evaluation takes place at the end of a program or instructional unit. It is retrospective by nature and usually is done for the purposes of accountability. Often, two or more programs are compared using summative data to determine their relative effectiveness in reaching stated goals. Both formative and summative evaluation are needed in foreign-language program building, but the selection of approach will depend on the part of the curriculum cycle under review. In planning any evaluation design, the intended audience (be it students, teachers, administrators, or citizens' groups) must be taken into consideration before a list of questions can be formulated.

In general, external evaluators will be more likely to function in a summative context, while internal evaluators will want to conduct a formative evaluation (Popham, 15). If teachers are interested in assessing the success of their instruction, for example, they will probably want to engage in a formative type of evaluation that answers questions relating to student achievement, success of methods and approaches, validity of tests, relevance of activities, adequacy of materials and facilities, and the like. The School Board, on the other hand, might want to look at the same program primarily to determine the cost of instruction: They are likely to be interested in summative evaluative data. The point is that no one evaluation plan should attempt to do everything at once.

The incredible model muddle

Once the purpose and intended audience of the evaluation have been identified, a specific plan of action can be designed. Many models have been proposed to guide the efforts of evaluation teams, but some are less useful than others. Popham (15) takes a dim view of some of the evaluation literature in this regard:

> Although it is sensible for educational evaluators to inform themselves of the nature of educational evaluation models, they should not get too caught up in that enticing but enervating game known as *comparative model meshing*. Some people take great delight in seeing how Model X differs from Model Q and is ever so slightly like the seventy-ninth stage of Model Z. This kind of model comparison may represent a pleasant avocation for the retired evaluator; although fruitless, it also appears harmless (p. 21).

A review of the general evaluation literature reveals that, although models differ in complexity and focus, there are many similarities in all of the designs. With a little squeezing, they can be classified into four descriptive categories (Popham, 15):

1. *Goal attainment models*, which determine the degree to which an instructional program's goals are achieved. For descriptions of models by Tyler, Hammond, and Metfessel and Michael, see Popham's discussion, Chapter Two.
2. *Judgmental models emphasizing intrinsic criteria*, such as those used by regional accreditation associations. In this approach schools generally engage in extended self-study before the accrediation team arrives. Reports are prepared around the criteria supplied by the agency. With few exceptions, the accreditation teams are interested in intrinsic criteria, such as the nature of course offerings, the kind of materials used, the nature of the methods, the qualifications of the staff, and the physical plant. (See Section 4-7 of the National Study of School Evaluation's *Evaluative Criteria*, Fifth edition [Appendix] for a complete checklist relating to foreign language programs.)

Both Popham (15) and Stufflebeam (21) attest to the diminishing interest in the accreditation concept of evaluation because of its almost total reliance on intrinsic criteria.

3. *Judgmental models emphasizing extrinsic criteria*, which give attention to such factors as the quality of program goals and program "payoffs" or effects on learning. Two evaluation designs in this category, by Scriven and Stake, are also discussed in Popham (15).
4. *Decision-facilitation models*, in which the evaluator refrains from making judgments and simply collects data for a decision maker. In the CIPP Model, four types of evaluation are suggested to facilitate decisions, namely: *C*ontext, *I*nput, *P*rocess, and *P*roduct. Designed by Egon Guba and Daniel Stufflebeam, this model (known fondly by colleagues at a large midwestern university as the "Gooblebeam Scheme") provides data for four types of decisions:

a *Planning decisions* to determine objectives;
b *Structuring decisions* to design instructional procedures;
c *Implementing decisions* to use, monitor, or improve these procedures;
d *Recycling decisions* to judge and react to the effects of these procedures.

For those who are interested in an informative (though iconoclastic) treatment of the various models mentioned above, see Popham (15), Chapter Two.

Although there is an abundance of literature pertaining to program evaluation in general, the foreign language education community has been strangely quiet about the problem, which leads one to suspect that evaluations are not being carried out with any regularity or in any systematic fashion. A questionnaire, designed by Eddy and Omaggio (4), solicited specific information about the state of the art. In the next section, Eddy provides an analysis of that information.

Foreign language program evaluation in the U.S. today: Results of a survey

by Peter A. Eddy

In February 1978, a survey form on program evaluation was sent to supervisors of foreign language instruction in all fifty state departments of education. We received thirty-one completed questionnaires, a return rate of 62 percent. A general discussion of the survey results follows. The reader is cautioned against inferring too much from these results. The states represent extremely diverse situations which cannot be assumed to fit into a statistically analyzable universe. In addition, not all respondents answered all questions.

The first four questions attempted to discover how much program evaluation was being done by state language supervisors. Half of the responses (Question #1) indicated that regional accreditation association evaluation was part of the job description of the state foreign language supervisor. Twenty-six of the thirty indicated that they had participated in at least one such visit per year over the past three years. Such accreditation visits do not appear to constitute a large percentage of state foreign language supervisors' duties, however: of thirty responses, several individuals reported no accreditation visits per year, over half reported one to three visits per year, and the remainder reported between four and ten visits per year (Question #2).

While it appears that some state superintendents' offices had had rather well-developed evaluative programs in the past, this practice is not widespread today. Eleven of thirty-one respondents stated that their job description included a regular cycle of visits to evaluate foreign language programs in their state. Seven individuals reported one to three such visits per year, and six individuals reported seven or more (Question #3).

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Our survey results indicate that state foreign language supervisors are for the most part available to help with program evaluation in buildings and districts: twenty-four of twenty-nine individuals indicated that responding to requests from the field was a part of their job description. About half of them reported doing four or more such evaluations per year (Question #4).

Comments made by several supervisors indicate that current hard times in secondary education in general and in foreign languages in particular are reducing the number and quality of foreign language program evaluations. In one state, for example, evaluations are now done by teams of generalists; in another, state curriculum specialists still perform evaluations, but they act as generalists and do not limit themselves to curriculum areas in which they themselves have expertise.

Questions #5 and #6 of our survey dealt with the foreign language supervisors' perceptions of the effectiveness of regional accrediting association evaluations. Asked whether these evaluations are providing useful information to teachers for program assessment and change, nineteen of thirty-one respondents stated that these evaluations were "moderately successful." Six judged them "very successful" and one, "very unsuccessful." (Question #5).

Asked to explain *why* such evaluation might be less than successful, several state supervisors mentioned that provisions were not made to help teachers modify programs through follow-up visits. Two respondents mentioned that the reports of visiting teams were too frequently merely endorsements of the *status quo.* Others claimed that evaluation reports tended not to identify the *real* problems faced by language programs, and several noted the extremely variable quality of the visiting evaluation team's reports (Question #6).

Program evaluation costs time and money. Questions seven and eight were designed to discover the number of funded foreign language program evaluations taking place per year, and their funding sources. Of thirty-one states responding, thirteen reported *no* schools spending money "outside regular program expenses"; eight states reported one to three evaluations per year, two reported four to six per year, and one reported more than ten per year. Seven states either did not know, gave no response, or reported "some" (Question #7).

Asked whether grant money was available from sources within the state for foreign language program evaluation, eighteen of thirty-one respondents said "no," and six were not sure. Of the seven who stated that money was available, sources were ESEA Title IV-C, "teacher"- or "mini-grants," the state program of the National Endowment for the Humanities, and BOCES (Board of Cooperative Educational Services) (Question #8). Individual states seemed to have widely varying practices. It appears, however, that it would be well worth a teacher's time to explore funding possibilities in his or her state. The state foreign language supervisor is the primary source for this type of information.

Questions nine and ten asked state foreign language supervisors to identify guidelines which they use in program evaluation and which they recommend to teachers for self-evaluation. As anticipated, the majority of foreign language supervisors is eclectic in its choice of evaluation guidelines: NSSE's Evaluative Criteria are used most frequently for regional accreditation visits. No standard form is used for most other visits, although five of thirty respondents indicated that they chose state or locally developed guidelines Question #9).

A wide variety of guidelines was mentioned (Question #10) as resource materials to help teachers self-evaluate their foreign language programs. Several of these are given in the Appendix.

Our last two questions attempted to get a global view of foreign language program evaluation. Question #11 asked for an estimate of the percentage of foreign language programs that are undergoing "adequate" evaluation on a regular basis. Twenty-one of thirty-one respondents estimated that number at between 0 and 20 percent; six supervisors considered that between 21 and 60 percent of programs were adequately evaluated. No response was received from three, and one respondent indicated that between 80–100 percent were adequately evaluated "if regular is between five and ten years."

Question #12 inquired whether foreign language instruction would be improved if programs could be evaluated more frequently. Twenty-five of thirty respondents stated "yes," though several qualified their response.

One supervisor noted that program evaluation only has a positive effect if it brings about change for the better; another stated that the effect depends on *how* the evaluation is done and *who* does it. A third commented that when administrative and/or teacher incompetence is a factor, evaluation does not help.

With some notable exceptions, there appears to be a low level of interest and activity in program evaluation of foreign language instruction in the United States, with the single general exception of the periodic (and too often, *pro forma*) visits of the regional accreditation associations. Language professionals who have the best perspective in evaluation—the state foreign language supervisors—believe that more evaluation would improve the quality of instruction. Although there is wide variability in resources, the vast majority of states have available professional expertise, and some have the possibility of financial support for the teacher who wants to take a serious look at his or her program.

The evaluation scene in foreign languages

Analysis of the information gathered from 1) the foregoing questionnaire, 2) a search of the ERIC data base and other reference sources, and 3) an assortment of evaluation documents supplied by state supervisors and other colleagues reveals three common patterns of evaluation that have been used recently in foreign language programs. These patterns are similar to those identified by Grittner (8):

1 *Analysis of Program Characteristics:* This method involves the use of NSSE-type evaluative criteria, individually developed checklists, or adaptations of established checklists. The items on these lists generally relate to the nature of course offerings, the qualifications of the instructional staff, physical facilities, instructional materials, learning activities, and the like. As Grittner points out, the limitation of this approach is that, although it reveals data about a program's potential, there is no guarantee that this potential will ever be realized. However, there are some benefits to be derived from this method, for it encourages teachers to look critically at the various components of their program in a structured way. Many teachers become disillusioned, though, when nothing substantial results from their efforts to fill out the many forms and supply information to the evaluation team. Grittner (8) agrees with evaluation specialists cited earlier that the judgmental model using lists of instrinsic program characteristics is not an adequate form of evaluation in and of itself. The checklists generated by these efforts can serve, nevertheless, as excellent resources for planning other kinds of evaluations. Some of them may help identify objectives to be evaluated; others may be adapted and used as measurement instruments. A list of checklists can be found in the Appendix.
2 *Classroom Observations:* A second popular approach to evaluation among foreign language educators has been the periodic visit to individual classrooms by a consultant at the state, regional, or district level. These visits are generally designed to reveal whether teacher/student activities during a typical class period are consistent with stated course objectives. Using either a formal behavioral analysis technique or informal observation, the evaluator gathers information and writes a report, summarizing the behaviors observed and making suggestions for improvement. The advantage of this method is that it focuses on the congruence of activities and behaviors with stated goals. The major disadvantage is that there is a tendency to involve little more than teacher evaluation. Although program evaluation should include classroom observations of this sort, other factors should not be ignored. Too frequently, this type of evaluation does not provide information about student achievement or attitudes toward instructional procedures, the relevance of tests, texts, and supplementary materials to specific program objectives, and the like. Although good teaching is obviously a crucial factor in program success, evaluation must go beyond teacher evaluation if substantial improvements are to be made in the curricular design as a whole.
3 *A Systems Approach:* In our search we discovered only two foreign language evaluation efforts that employed a more formalized, systematic

approach to planning and conducting an evaluation. The first of these was done in 1971 by Reynolds (19) for the Nashville Metropolitan School District. She adapted a method of evaluation known as PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique), a system that was designed in cooperation with the Navy to manage the Polaris missile project. (It is encouraging to note at this point that the Polaris missile *did* get off the ground.) The PERT method demands complete and logical planning of a project and involves designing a "network" of activities—a graphic representation of the steps included—and a diagram of the work flow as the plan unfolds. The Reynolds model designates clearly the major work units of the evaluation plan, including:

- definition of the objectives of the evaluation;
- description of the present program in the district schools (much like the analysis of program characteristics described above);
- appraisal of the costs of the evaluation;
- a research phase, including review of the literature, consultation with resource persons, and selection of tentative evaluation instruments;
- appraisal of the current program by selected evaluation consultants and an evaluation committee;
- a data collection phase (using various questionnaires, self-reports, classroom observations, interviews, and standardized tests of achievement);
- analysis of the data;
- a reporting and dissemination phase.

The Reynolds model seems to be a viable approach to program evaluation, and it is impressive in its detail and organization. It may seem overly complicated to an individual or group of teachers who are setting out on their first program evaluation because of the large number of schools involved in the study and the vast scope of the inquiry. If the scope of the design were limited in some way, it could probably be used successfully in building-level evaluations.

A second systematic evaluation design for foreign language programs was used in the Alberta Modern Language Study, conducted in 1976 by Parker (14). One of the strengths of this plan is the effort that was made to collect attitudinal data from parents, teachers, and students about program goals, instructional activities, and learning outcomes. Instruments for gathering this data are presented in the document. They could be easily adapted and used in building-level evaluations; some sample items are included in the model that will be suggested later in this chapter.

In the following sections, case studies should serve to illustrate how evaluation plans can vary widely, depending on the purposes and scope of the inquiry.

Program evaluation in Washington state: A case study

by Lester W. McKim

Foreign language program evaluation produces information to help make decisions. When planning evaluation processes, one should consider decision-making areas. Answers to the following questions should be clear to evaluators, evaluatees, and decision makers:

1 Why is the program being evaluated?
2 Who will do the evaluating?
3 Specifically, what parts of the program are to be evaluated?
4 Who is to be evaluated?
5 When is the evaluation to take place?
6 How is the evaluating to be done?

The program evaluation described here typifies those in which this author has participated. Although a factual description, the program is not identified. This case study illustrates evaluation procedures and identifies roles of people involved.

District junior high program evaluation

The Mountain View School District conducted a summative evaluation of its junior high foreign language program four years after the program was initiated. The program consisted of three years of instruction in French, German, and Spanish, beginning in grade 7. The purpose of the evaluation was to indicate to the district administration, the Board of Directors, and the community whether the district had met its commitment to support the program during the developmental years and whether instruction was adequate in terms of stated goals and objectives.

The district administrative commitment was in terms of resources and supporting conditions. The instructional commitment was in terms of program goals, course objectives, and course content. This case study refers to

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each of those five components and provides answers to evaluation questions 1, 2, 5, and 6 above.

Resources: During the period of program implementation, the district agreed to provide necessary resources, contingent upon annual monitoring of the program's success. Support included a special staffing ratio, so that junior high classes were smaller than high school classes; all needed equipment and materials, so that the program was implemented without placing an inordinate strain on building budgets; and a district program budget adequate to cover the costs of curriculum development and teacher inservice training. The district coordinator was responsible for developing an annual budget, monitoring its use, and reporting results to the administration annually.

Supporting conditions: Three important supporting conditions were: 1) the formal district commitment to foreign language instruction made at the time the proposal was initially approved and restated annually as budgets were approved; 2) acceptance of district responsibility for program implementation, including provision of resources as discussed above; and 3) provision for foreign language teachers to participate in all phases of orientation to assure that students and parents had complete and accurate information about the program.

Program goals: Foreign language program goals served as guidelines for the entire district program, grades 7 through 12. Teachers agreed that these goals would not change significantly during the first four years of the new program.

There were two kinds of program goals. Those related to student attitudes were measurable. Those related to instruction were stated in general terms and were not directly measurable, but they served as a source for course objectives, which were measurable. Since there was general agreement that foreign language instruction in the high schools was successful, teachers agreed that student scores on achievement and attitude measures would serve as a standard by which to determine the success or failure of the junior high program.

Three kinds of data were used as measures of student attitude: enrollment in foreign language classes; amount of attrition from one year to the next; and student responses to a locally prepared attitude questionnaire. High school foreign language enrollment normally included between 45 percent and 55 percent of the students in the four schools. The goal for the junior high schools was to keep the percentage of students entering the program in grade 7 in that same range each year. Between 60 and 70 percent of the high school students who started the study of a foreign language completed at least two years. The goal for the junior high schools was to keep the percentage of students completing the three-year program in that same range.

Since the attitude questionnaire had not been developed, there was no history of high school responses to use as a standard. It was decided that the district coordinator and teams of foreign language teachers would develop a questionnaire and administer it four years after the initiation of the junior high program, and it was hoped that junior and senior high student responses would be equally positive. The questionnaire was administered to foreign language students as they finished three years of junior high school instruction or two years of high school instruction.

Teachers had a general impression that the achievement of high school foreign students was satisfactory or better. Although nationally standardized tests had not been used in Mountain View, reports of student achievement from university professors, from past students, from parents, and from high school teachers were positive. Teachers decided to develop an achievement test locally as part of the program evaluation. Those tests would be based on course objectives derived from program goals.

Course objectives: In the three languages, emphasis during the first two levels of instruction was on the development of communicative skills, though reading, writing, and knowledge of grammar were taught according to their presentation in the textbooks. Since three different series were used (French: *Voix et Images de France;* German: *Audio-Lingual Materials;* and Spanish: *La Familia Fernandez*), it was not possible to state identical terminal course objectives for the three languages. However, one instructional goal that applied equally was that students completing three years in the junior high program would be as successful in Level 3 classes as students completing two levels in the high schools.

Tests developed for the evaluation of the junior high program were designed to measure student achievement in terms of the terminal course objectives for two levels of instruction in each language. For example, it was agreed that students would be able to repeat sentences with correct pronunciation of key sounds and with correct intonation; that they would be able to read orally with correct pronunciation and intonation; that they would be able to listen to a question and a series of possible answers and select the most appropriate answer in terms of grammar and information; that they would be able to write dictated sentences, using the spelling and punctuation conventions of the target language.

Content: Course content was defined as the materials and experiences provided to the foreign language students. The basic content was derived from the textbooks. To achieve the articulation goal teachers agreed that 50 percent of two levels of instruction would be completed during each high school year but in junior high would reflect the maturity of the students: 30 percent in grade 7; 30 percent in grade 8; 40 percent in grade 9.

In addition to the textbook-related objectives, junior high teachers agreed to include culture-related objectives in their courses, as well as activities suitable for the younger students.

One indication of the success of the junior high program was the amount of teacher participation in developing materials to supplement the textbooks, their ability and willingness to teach the content identified for each level of instruction, and their participation in inservice programs developed and implemented by the coordinator and members of the writing teams.

Data gathering had to start immediately, for district, building, and teacher decisions were to be made on the basis of these data.

The district coordinator and the Foreign Language Advisory Council agreed that a summative evaluation of the junior high program would take place four years after program implementation and that representatives of the council would prepare a report to the Board of Directors relative to its success. There would be two major objectives to the report: to renew the district commitment to an articulated five-level program in French, German, and Spanish; and to provide foreign language teachers with objective information useful for their continuing efforts to improve instruction and for developing curriculum for levels 3, 4, and 5. The report indicated the following facts:

1 During the first four years of program implementation, the district had met its commitment relative to resources and supporting conditions.
2 Student enrollment and retention were comparable between the junior high program and the high school program.
3 Results of the attitude questionnaire were comparable for junior high school and high school students. For example, between 85 percent and 90 percent of the students in each group indicated they would like to speak a foreign language like a native speaker, that they would like to visit a country where the language they were studying was spoken, and that they would try to learn the language of any country in which they lived for a year or more.
4 Results of achievement testing indicated that junior high school and high school achievement were comparable, with the junior high students having a slight lead in certain areas.
5 By the end of four years of program implementation, the staff development work, including curriculum development and inservice training, had resulted in a rather unusually strong district staff, committed to the articulated district program.

Conclusion

In this case study, the evaluation was completed in three phases: developing an evaluation design; gathering data; and preparing and presenting a final report. It was summative in the sense that it provided information about the instructional program over a period of years. That information was then used by teachers and school administrators to make decisions affecting the future of the program. The data and information gathered established standards for ongoing program monitoring as well as for other "final" evaluations planned for the future.

Evaluating ESL programs in the Indochinese refugee education projects: A case study

by Anthony V. Pfannkuche

In the fall of 1976, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare funded sixty-four projects, located throughout the country, designed to aid the resettlement of Indochinese refugees. The projects were intended to "achieve a significant shift of numbers of Indochinese refugees from cash assistance rolls to employment and self-sufficiency." That is, their purpose was to help refugees enter the job market. Refugees faced special barriers. Few understood how the American job market operates, or how to gain access to it. Most lacked easily transferable skills or relevant training. A large part of the refugee community had little or no ability to communicate in English. The HEW program was to be a short-term effort ("one-time funding"), a one-year program to address these barriers to employment. The sixty-four projects were called upon to provide "English language instruction, training, and employment services . . . in line with the overall objective of self-sufficiency for Indochinese refugees" (5, p. 30701).

When HEW funded the Refugee Education Projects, it also funded the National Indochinese Clearinghouse and Technical Assistance Center (NICTAC) at the Center for Applied Linguistics. NICTAC's concern was to ensure that high quality, relevant English language instruction was made available through the projects.

The clearinghouse staff included linguists and experienced second language teachers, all well acquainted with the current theory and practice of teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) to adults. We knew methods, strategies, and classroom techniques of effective ESL teaching, and we had conducted a comprehensive survey of contemporary adult ESL materials. Insofar as the HEW projects concerned traditional ESL areas, we were confident that we could evaluate their effectiveness and offer specific technical assistance to upgrade the language instruction components.

It rapidly became apparent, however, that an evaluation limited to the quality of instruction in ESL classrooms might have little relevance to the

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overall effectiveness of the project. Put simply, high performance in the ESL class did not necessarily lead to employment.

Traditional evaluation instruments, moreover, did not serve well. The profession has not identified the level of English language skill necessary for successful employment, or for training for employment. A certain score on the TOEFL exam had little predictive value for a successful career in the auto trade. Indeed, other factors, such as motivation, attitude, personal career goals, previous training, and the like seem to be more critical than mere English language proficiency.

In short, it was necessary to take into account the context of the projects and their ultimate goals in evaluating the ESL instruction. For the ESL instructional component to be effective and relevant in a "manpower project" (a comprehensive employment training program), it would have to be closely coordinated with other project elements, such as personal and vocational counseling, and incorporate specific survival skills or vocation-related content.

The function of the clearinghouse was to provide technical assistance to the Refugee Educational Projects. We carried out an initial needs assessment of each project—a "formative evaluation"—in order to identify weaknesses so that our technical assistance would be specific and pertinent. The two-phase evaluation focused on areas of specific ESL classroom concerns *and* manpower concerns, or the function of the language instruction in the total context of the program.

Our formative evaluation of the ESL component relied on familiar criteria: teacher preparation, teacher competence in the classroom, basic text materials, supplementary resources, class organization, language program structure, and the selection and use of test instruments. Because these were short-term, intensive projects designed to prepare adults for employment, the choices of materials and class organization were limited. A basic ESL text developed for language students preparing to enter college was usually *not* the best choice for these programs. Texts that centered on survival and coping skills for adults were more immediately relevant. (Sometimes, but not often, we found inexperienced teachers using entirely inappropriate materials; in one remarkable class, the first-grade reader *Dick and Jane* was used! We argued that ESL is different from literacy training.)

Limitations of time and budget enforced severe restrictions on the ESL component. Unlike the typical ongoing ESL instruction available through many Adult Basic Education programs, the classes here had to accomplish a great deal in a very short period of time. An intensive program, which set specific, limited performance goals, was likely to be far more appropriate to the needs of the adult refugees preparing for vocational training. The most common problem encountered was that program structure was not often clear to the students, although the project staff members adopted a highly structured design. We suggested that students could profit from understanding the program organization.

The criteria used to evaluate the ESL training per se were traditional. Because the assessment dealt with overall program issues, we had to develop an understanding of fundamental issues in manpower training. Fortunately, there was an opportunity to work closely with manpower specialists from HEW who were our counterparts in offering technical assistance. As we became more familiar with the general elements of manpower program design, we were better able to understand the nature and function of vocational counseling, prevocational training, and the activities of a job developer. This insight enabled us to judge whether the language training component was well integrated with the program and to suggest ways in which the language training could further reflect manpower concerns.

Bringing vocation-related concerns into an ESL class was surprisingly difficult. In the end, we tried to identify a number of programs that had successfully overcome various problems and could serve as models. Teacher-made classroom materials were also identified in a variety of vocation-related areas so they could be shared by all Refugee Education Projects.

It is not important to describe here in any extensive way the elements that go into a successful ESL-manpower program, or to elaborate the criteria that finally seemed most relevant to evaluation of Indochinese projects. What *is* important is the realization that the criteria ordinarily applied to ESL programs were not sufficient for assessing language instruction in this context. When evaluating an ESL class, we had to consider not only *what* was happening in the classroom, but also *how* the activities related to counseling or to the other vocational components. If the ESL class was unrelated to overall program goals, one could predict that the instruction would not be very successful, and that many students would stop attending the class altogether.

Technical assistance, of course, followed this initial but critical needs assessment. Assistance workshops conducted for selected projects were designed for the entire project staff—counselors, vocational trainers, and job developers, as well as language teachers. The point was to provide a context for communication among the various project elements. Staff members were encouraged to share their knowledge and competencies so that they might better understand and attain the program goals. As evaluators, we had to widen our perspective also, as it was not productive to conceive of language instruction too narrowly.

A suggested model for program improvement: One-step-at-a-time

A review of current practices, interviews with classroom teachers and supervisory personnel and the survey results have indicated that, with few exceptions, language instruction in the United States could benefit from better planned, systematic evaluations for foreign language programs on a regular basis. Furthermore, it seems preferable to begin with *formative* evaluations at the building level, where teachers involved in everyday classroom instruction cooperate to plan and implement the study. More extensive summative evaluations can come later. Some benefits of teacher involvement in all phases of the evaluation plan include the following:

- reduction of the fear, hostility, and frustration that often come with evaluations that are "sprung" on teachers by "outsiders"
- greater likelihood that teacher involvement will generate a spirit of cooperation (the goal of the evaluative process is program improvement for the good of all concerned)
- a greater sense of commitment to the evaluation, since teachers do the planning of procedures and measurement instruments
- a greater interest in the results obtained from the study
- a greater potential for instituting needed changes, since teachers have discovered the need to do so for themselves.

This is not to say that supervisory personnel or consultants should not be involved in local program evaluations. On the contrary, it is recommended that some outside leadership and expertise be provided to individual schools requesting such help. These outside consultants probably:

- have more specialized training and competence in program evaluation techniques
- bring the objectivity of an outside observer
- have little or no vested interest in the outcome of the evaluation
- will relieve the burden of some of the preparatory work from the classroom teachers
- have special knowledge to offer in areas such as goal identification, instrument development, and the like.

The planning of efficient and workable program evaluations requires that staff members be given some release time. Strasheim (20) suggests that teachers ask school boards for time and financial resources for planning program evaluations. It is unrealistic to expect busy and overworked staff members to supply their time without compensation. Given the public's concern for better programs, there should be little resistance to scheduling a series of inservice days or a summer workshop for the purpose of planning a design for program improvement.

With these preliminary considerations in mind, a model for program evaluation is proposed that is both *systematic* and *flexible*. Just as there is no "one true way" to teach a foreign language, there is no one prescription for planning an evaluation. Rather, a framework for proceeding is proposed here: It represents this author's synthesis of program evaluation literature, as it relates to both general and foreign language education. Teachers working with supervisors or consultants must fill in the blanks according to their specialized local needs. Examples of ways to "fill in" these blanks will be suggested, and a variety of resources will be listed.

The importance of focus

Although the model presented here is adaptable to a variety of purposes, it is suggested that first attempts to conduct a systematic evaluation of this type concentrate on only one or two aspects of the foreign language program at a time. Narrowing the focus of the evaluation should make the task more manageable and permit a more thorough study of program variables that affect student progress in a given area of the curriculum. Subsequent evaluations can be designed using the same model to treat other aspects of the program as well.

The model that follows can be classified as a "goal attainment" approach to program assessment; that is, a certain set of learning goals and objectives are identified, and an assessment is made as to how well these goals are being met *during the course of instruction.* The total process is represented in Figure 1.

STEP 1: Identify a set of program goals and objectives to be evaluated.

It is assumed that the program planners considered the needs of the students and the community in designing the foreign language curriculum and that they formulated a set of goals and objectives for language instruction. Some states have provided goal statements in their curriculum guides. New York State, for example, has developed a notional syllabus that provides detailed program objectives. Alabama's 1978 Guide lists objectives and activities to achieve them. These documents, as well as a sampling of other state curriculum guides, are listed in the Appendix to this chapter.

The first step in program evaluation, then, is to loot the shelves and file drawers of the foreign language curriculum library and take a serious look at these goal statements. Law and Bronson (12) point out that "clearly-stated performance objectives are the key to the evaluation process (p. A-14)." Stufflebeam (21) likewise points out the dangers of making goal-setting an abstract activity with no basis in reality: "We convene to write goals and objectives for students we have not seen and about whom we have no information. Then when we encounter the students and learn of their needs, we forget about the goals.... We are more likely not to forget the goals if they are set on the basis of a needs assessment. Then we can use them ... as criteria for evaluating program plans (pp. 250–51)."

Program goals should be measurable—not vague abstractions—if they are to serve the needs of the evaluators. Some examples of unacceptable goal statements might include the following:

Students will become more humane.

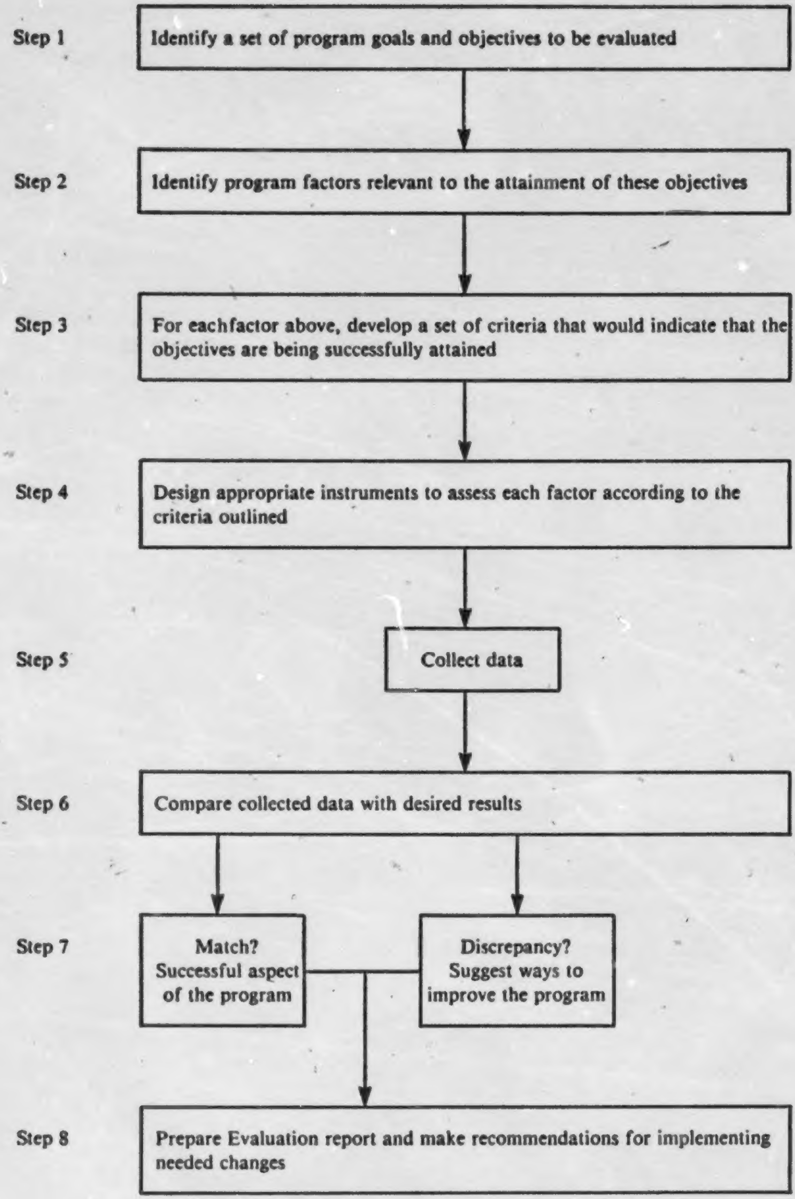

Step 1
Identify a set of program goals and objectives to be evaluated
Step 2
Identify program factors relevant to the attainment of these objectives
Step 3
For eachfactor above, develop a set of criteria that would indicate that the objectives are being successfully attained
Step 4
Design appropriate instruments to assess each factor according to the criteria outlined
Step 5
Collect data
Step 6
Compare collected data with desired results
Step 7
Match? Successful aspect of the program
Discrepancy? Suggest ways to improve the program
Step 8
Prepare Evaluation report and make recommendations for implementing needed changes

Fig. 1 The one-step-at-a-time model for program improvement ***(Omaggio)***

> Students will understand great literature.
> Pupils will get their heads together.
> (Popham, 15, p. 50)

Equally unacceptable are performance objectives that are so specific as to be trivial:

> Students will be able to name three birds of prey in Spanish.
> Pupils will be able to do the drills on page 4 in three minutes flat.

Obviously, a compromise is in order. As Bloom (1) points out, " . . . not all purposes of education can or should be made explicit. . . . However, insofar as possible, the purposes of education and the specifications for educational changes should be made explicit if they are to be open to inquiry" (p. 30).

In the model proposed here, the program staff should sit down with a list of goals, subgoals, and objectives and establish priorities in some way, choosing a subset of the total to be subject to evaluation. Perhaps the goals could be ranked or rated in terms of their importance to relevant groups, such as teachers, administrators, students, or parents. When preference ratings have been assigned in this fashion, there is a defensible rationale for choosing certain sets of objectives over others (Popham, 15).

Let us suppose that the teachers and students of a hypothetical high school, Harper Valley High, have ranked general program goals and have decided that they are most interested in knowing how well the program is designed to foster communicative competence in the listening and speaking skills. The evaluation committee would identify a certain set of goals and objectives relating to these areas of the curriculum, selecting them from the state curriculum guide or a similar source. For example, they might base their speaking and listening objectives on those suggested in the 1975 *Northeast Conference Reports* (Born, 2). Excellent guidelines for formulating and refining goal statements are provided in Stage 2 of this volume.

STEP 2: Identify program factors relevant to the attainment of these objectives.

In addition to student achievement, some program factors to be evaluated might include teacher competencies, teacher behavior, student attitudes, teaching methods and approaches, classroom environment, learning activities, instructional materials, test design, equipment, and physical plant concerns. The scope of the evaluation plan will depend on how many of these factors are to be subject to inquiry. The set of factors considered most relevant to the Harper Valley committee are listed in Figure 2.

STEP 3: For each factor in Step 2, develop a set of criteria that would indicate that the objectives are being successfully attained.

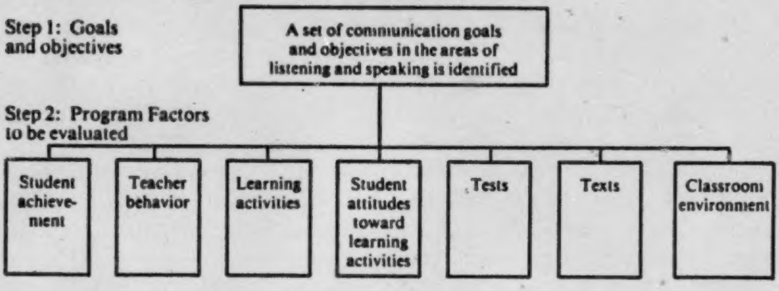

Step 1: Goals and objectives
A set of communication goals and objectives in the areas of listening and speaking is identified
Step 2: Program Factors to be evaluated
Student achievement
Teacher behavior
Learning activities
Student attitudes toward learning activities
Tests
Texts
Classroom environment

Fig. 2 Steps 1 and 2 of the Harper Valley Evaluation Plan

In order to set up a list of criteria or evaluation standards, the committee will need to make decisions about what kinds of information will constitute convincing evidence of the program's success. Some suggestions about developing criteria are presented below:

Student achievement: Performance standards should be easy to generate if the instructional objectives have been carefully formulated in Step 1. For example, if one of the objectives stated that students would demonstrate competence in speaking by responding adequately in the target language to questions about their families, the criteria for successful attainment of this objective might be specified in terms of the type and amount of information given, the accuracy of the response, or the choice of vocabulary. Performance standards should be specified for each objective to be evaluated.

Teacher behavior: The following factors might be considered in designing a list of criteria for adequate teacher behavior in promoting the development of communication skills in listening and speaking: use of the target language, methods and approaches used, error correction techniques, classroom management strategies, provision of ample practice in real communication, use of media and resources, balance in the use of drill language and "real" language in classroom activities, sensitivity to the learning needs and preferences of individual students, and the like.

Learning activities: Types of learning activities that will encourage communicative use of the target language should be listed. Sample learning activities for developing communicative competence in listening and speaking are provided in many sources in the foreign language education literature, including other chapters in this volume and other volumes of the ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series.

Student attitudes towards learning activities: A thorough evaluation study will include data relating to student attitudes toward various aspects of the program. Desired student attitudes toward learning activities will include enthusiasm and interest, expressed either through a questionnaire or in informal interviews. Data relating to student attitude towards hypothetical activities may also be collected. (See Step 4 of the Harper Valley plan for data collection instruments.)

Tests: Criteria for adequate tests of listening and speaking skills would relate to the content and face validity of classroom examinations and quizzes, their reliability, the frequency and conditions under which they are administered, and other similar concerns.

Texts: Foreign language texts and supplementary materials should provide an ample number of communicative activities in listening and speaking; vocabulary and grammar should be presented in such a way that students will be able to communicate about aspects of their everyday lives as soon as possible. Strategies for evaluating foreign language textbooks are presented in Stage 3 of this volume.

Classroom environment: Ways in which a communicative atmosphere can be established in the classroom as well as opportunities for practicing the language outside of class should be considered, and the evaluation committee can list desired characteristics to look for in their program.

The Harper Valley committee listed various criteria for success in Step 3 of their evaluation plan. See Figure 3 for a detailed description of those criteria.

STEP 4: Design appropriate instruments to assess each factor according to the criteria outlined.

Various types of evaluation instruments should be used in program evaluation, if for no other reason than the fact that putting all one's eggs in one basket is seldom a good idea. A variety of data collection techniques will yield a wealth of information about the program that achievement testing alone cannot provide.

Most evaluation specialists suggest that norm-referenced testing be avoided in formative evaluation designs. There is usually a lack of congruence between the content of the norm-referenced measure and local program goals, there is a tendency for such tests to exclude items with low discriminability. That is, norm-referenced tests usually eliminate items on which most students succeed, yet these may be the very items with the

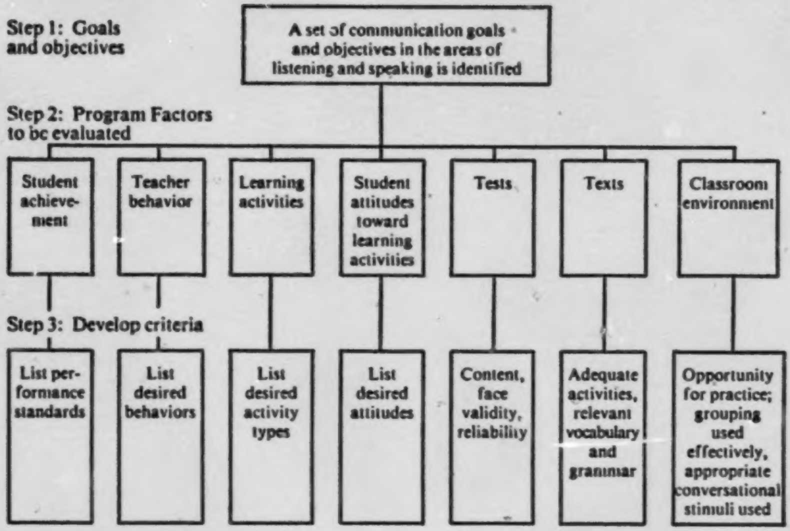

Step 1: Goals and objectives
A set of communication goals and objectives in the areas of listening and speaking is identified
Step 2: Program Factors to be evaluated
Student achievement
Teacher behavior
Learning activities
Student attitudes toward learning activities
Tests
Texts
Classroom environment
Step 3: Develop criteria
List performance standards
List desired behaviors
List desired activity types
List desired attitudes
Content, face validity, reliability
Adequate activities, relevant vocabulary and grammar
Opportunity for practice; grouping used effectively, appropriate conversational stimuli used

Fig. 3 Steps 1, 2, and 3 of the Harper Valley Evaluation Plan

greatest relevance to the stated program goals (Popham, 15). Because of these factors, norm-referenced tests are "relatively insensitive to instruction," and therefore not suited for the purposes of evaluating programs. There are arguments for using norm-referenced tests in summative evaluation plans, and these reasons are discussed in Stage 7 of this volume.

TenBrink (22, p. 140) has classified information-gathering techniques according to the kind of information they provide to the evaluator, their objectivity, and their cost. His classification scheme is reproduced in Figure 4.

	Inquiry	Observation	Analysis	Testing
Kind of information obtainable	Opinions Self-perceptions Affective *(especially attitudes)* Social perceptions	Performance or the end products of some performance Affective *(especially emotional reactions)* Social interaction psychomotor skills Typical behavior	Learning outcomes during the learning process *(intermediate goals)* Cognitive and psychomotor skills Some affective outcomes	Attitude and achievement Terminal goals Cognitive outcomes Maximum performance
Objectivity	Least objective Highly subject to bias and error	Subjective but can be objective if care is taken in the construction and use of the instruments	Objective but not stable over time	Most objective and reliable
Cost	Inexpensive but can be time-consuming	Inexpensive but very time-consuming	Fairly inexpensive Preparation time is somewhat lengthy but crucial	Most expensive but most formation gained per unit of time

Fig. 4 TenBrink's Four Information-gathering techniques and their characteristics

An interesting questionnaire for assessing student attitudes towards instructional activities was developed in the Alberta Modern Language Study (Parker, 14). A few sample items relating to speaking and writing skills are presented below:

Students were asked to rate the following types of activities on a scale of 1 (Dislike) to 5 (Like very much):

Communicative Activities
To give the class practice in using the French which they have learned, the teacher has them:

- Make up sentences to go with a cartoon or picture and tell them to the class 1 2 3 4 5
- Write sentences to go with cartoons or pictures 1 2 3 4 5
- Answer a question in French 1 2 3 4 5
- Give a summary in French of a story or conversation 1 2 3 4 5
- Ask questions about stories or conversations with which the class has been working 1 2 3 4 5
- Talk about their own lives or interests in French 1 2 3 4 5
- Talk in French with someone who speaks the language 1 2 3 4 5
- Make up their own conversations 1 2 3 4 5

(pp. 103–5)

Students rated lists of activities in all four skills. Another part of the questionnaire asked students to choose one of three hypothetical classrooms according to how well they like the activities described. From such data gathering activities, the evaluators will be able to gauge how well students like existing practices and identify activities that might be tried in the future.

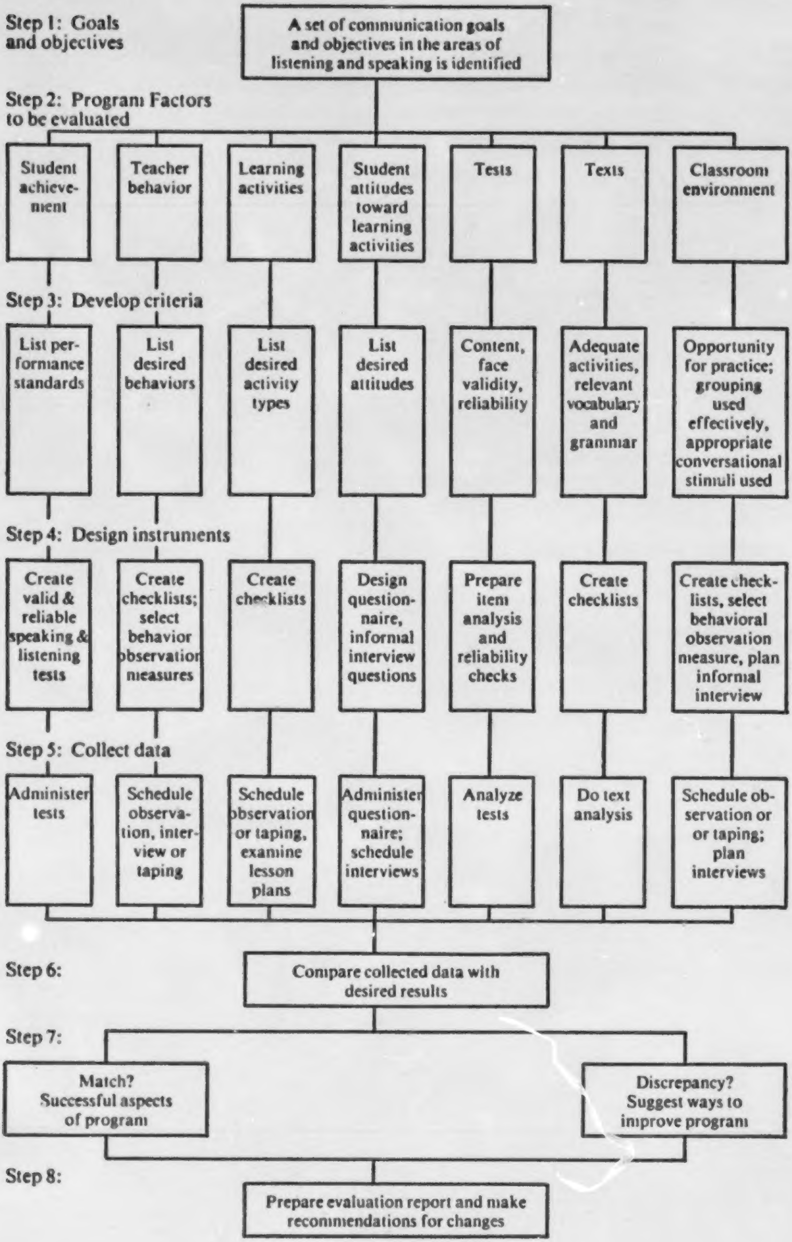
For a detailed list of evaluation instruments designed by the Harper Valley committee, see Figure 5, Step 4.

STEP 5: Collect data.

Once the evaluation team has identified the objectives to be evaluated, has collaborated on establishing criteria for program merit, and has designed a set of data-collection procedures, the actual collection of information about the success of the program can begin. (See Figure 5.) It is best to set up a schedule of classroom observations, taping sessions, interviews, questionnaire distribution, and test administration that is both manageable and realistic. Individual committee members might be designated to take responsibility for one or more of the data-collection activities; consultants might serve as observers and interviewers and also help in scoring the tests. A calendar of evaluation activities should be drawn up and agreed upon by all concerned. Finally, a date should be set for completion of all data-gathering activities that gives the committee ample time to analyze the results.

STEP 6: Compare collected data with desired results.

In this phase of the evaluation, the information gathered is closely examined to see if the actual program activities match desired outcomes as specified in the criteria generated in Step 3.


Step 1: Goals and objectives
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Step 3: Develop criteria
List performance standards
List desired behaviors
List desired activity types
List desired attitudes
Content, face validity, reliability
Adequate activities, relevant vocabulary and grammar
Opportunity for practice; grouping used effectively, appropriate conversational stimuli used
Step 4: Design instruments
Create valid & reliable speaking & listening tests
Create checklists; select behavior observation measures
Create checklists
Design questionnaire, informal interview questions
Prepare item analysis and reliability checks
Create checklists
Create checklists, select behavioral observation measure, plan informal interview
Step 5: Collect data
Administer tests
Schedule observation, interview or taping
Schedule observation or taping, examine lesson plans
Administer questionnaire; schedule interviews
Analyze tests
Do text analysis
Schedule observation or taping; plan interviews
Step 6:
Compare collected data with desired results
Step 7:
Match? Successful aspects of program
Discrepancy? Suggest ways to improve program
Step 8:
Prepare evaluation report and make recommendations for changes

Fig. 5 Complete Harper Valley Evaluation Plan

STEP 7: Match or discrepancy?

If program activities and outcomes match desired outcomes, the evaluation team can identify factors in the foreign language program that are working well to promote the achievement of communicative competence in listening and speaking. In the case of Harper Valley High, the committee found that the textbook topics matched student interests and vocabulary needs for communicating in the target language. However, several discrepancies were found between the desired criteria in other aspects of the program and the actual data, signaling problems to be remediated. For example, the Harper Valley team noted that students in German I and II did not have adequate opportunities for speaking practice, and many of them disliked certain classroom activities. In the French I classes, tests did not generally reflect the stated speaking and listening goals identified by the committee. Once the teachers had isolated these problems, they began investigating specific ways to improve instruction in these areas of the curriculum. It was agreed that more small-group activities would be used in the German classes, and various ideas for using realia and audiovisual aids were generated. The French teachers agreed to begin work on revising some of their test items. Specific suggestions for effectuating change in the foreign language program are suggested in Stage 9 of this volume.

STEP 8: Prepare evaluation report.

TenBrink (22) makes several suggestions relating to the preparation of evaluation reports. To summarize the results of an evaluation, he suggests these steps:

1 Determine the purpose of the summary. Think in terms of the audience toward whom the report is to be directed.
2 List the major decisions that were made.
3 List judgments that influenced those decisions.
4 Summarize the information used to make each judgment. Provide data in the form of graphs, tables, or other illustrative techniques.
5 Include a guide for interpreting the information in the report.

In short, a good evaluation report provides all the information needed by the intended audience. It should include an easily understandable exposition of the results. Popham (15) suggests using a diversity of reporting mechanisms, and emphasizes the need to present a well-documented case for making needed changes. He urges evaluators to write the report at "differential depths": there should be a fairly elementary introductory section, a more technical report (perhaps presented in an appendix), and a *highlights* section at the end. Whenever possible, evaluators should use verbal, numerical, and graphic reporting techniques within the report. The most important factor, perhaps, is the length of the document:

> Creators typically adore their creations ... But there is an almost perfect *inverse* relationship between the length of a final report and the degree to which it will even be completed by consumers, not to mention used.
>
> Evaluators ... will often create evaluation reports large enough to choke a hippo. Such encyclopedic volumes strike terror in the hearts of most prospective readers. These reports often find their way to a pile of "to be read later" materials. The "later" may end up being a lifetime (p. 263).

One of the most frequently cited reasons for the failure of foreign language program evaluations has been the lack of follow-up to the evaluation process. These cautionary remarks about the reporting phase of evaluation plans should therefore be considered seriously.

A sample complete evaluation plan is represented in Figure 5. This plan portrays graphically all of the steps discussed above in the hypothetical case of Harper Valley High. This example may involve a more extensive design than would be feasible in schools with only one or two teachers of foreign languages. In such cases, the teacher(s) may want to reduce the scope of the inquiry even further. It should be noted, however, that any evaluation design is only as good as the planning that goes into it. Program evaluation demands considerable effort and time; if it is worth doing, it is worth doing well.

Summary

This chapter is a synthesis of the best abailable knowledge on program evaluation techniques. The current state of the art in foreign language education has been reviewed, a few exemplary practices have been examined, and a model for future evaluation planning has been suggested. Perhaps the ultimate contribution of this chapter will be the identification of a very real need in our field—the need to determine better ways to assess the success of our programs and to carry them out more often. It is clear that we need to develop workable evaluation procedures at the state, district, and local levels. Evaluation workshops might be planned to 1) discover alternative ways to design workable program evaluations for a variety of audiences and purposes on a variety of levels; 2) train supervisory personnel and classroom teachers in evaluation techniques; and 3) design effective ways to implement needed change once the evaluation has been completed. We must begin to take our obligation to account for ourselves more seriously. In an era of decreasing foreign language enrollment, we cannot afford not to.

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Appendix: Checklists, Curriculum Guides, and Additional Resources for Evaluating Programs

A. *Checklists:* Items on these checklists relate to various aspects of foreign language programs. A few treat special topics, such as teacher behavior or competencies. These lists can serve as resources for teachers designing program evaluation instruments:

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B. Curriculum Guides

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Cook, Desmond L. *Program Evaluation and Review Technique:Application in Education.* DHEW Monograph no. 17, 1966. [EDRS:ED 015 533.]

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Eidell, Terry L., and John M. Nagle. *A Manual for Use of the SPECS Planning and Evaluation Document (PED) and the SPECS Program Summary.* Eugene:Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1971.

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D. *Agencies*

Educational Research Service (ERS)
1800 N. Kent Street
Arlington, Virginia 22209
(703) 243-2100
(Established by AASA in 1973. Provides research studies and reports on school management ideas, and other types of information. Currently sells 49 reports, several on the evaluation of programs.)

Accreditation Agencies

Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools
  3624 Market Street
  Philadelphia, PA 19104
New England Association of Colleges and Schools
  131 Middlesex Turnpike
  Burlington, MA 01853
North Central Association of Colleges and Schools
  Box 2276
  Boulder, CO 80302
Northwest Association of Colleges and Schools
  Box 100
  Blue Mountain Community College
  Pendleton, OR 97801
Southern Association of Colleges and Schools
  795 Peachtree Street, NE
  Atlanta, GA 30308
Western Association of Colleges and Schools
  1675 Los Osos Valley Rd., #207
  Los Osos, CA 93402

National Study of School Evaluation
  2201 Wilson Boulevard
  Arlington, VA 22209
  (703) 522-1511

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Stage 9

Modifying the program and providing for change

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Introduction

This volume has attempted to set forth the consecutive stages in planning and developing the curricular cycle. The section of the book on Planning the Program began with a review of the institutional structure and the effectiveness of current practices in school organization. Goals were set and needs assessed by determining the gap or discrepancy between the existing program and those desired goals. The content of the program was established and basic materials were selected.

Implementing the Program began by creating an environment conducive to learning, applying alternative teaching-learning strategies, and sorting out and adapting materials. It ended with testing the learning outcomes.

Evaluating the program interpreted these results to determine the level of attainment of the intended goals. Discrepancies between these goals and actual learning were identified, and areas for improvement were established.

Modifying the program and providing for change, the *last* stage in our curriculum development cycle, is perhaps the most difficult and complex. Change is defined by Havelock (17) as "any significant alteration in the status quo . . . which is intended to benefit the people involved. *Innovation* is any change which represents something new to the people being changed

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. . . [and] which benefits the people who are changed" (p. 4). These terms are used interchangeably in this chapter. In reality, this stage is also the *first* step in developing an improved program, since change takes place in the context of whatever curriculum already exists. Curriculum development is continuous curriculum *improvement* requiring the expertise, experience, and willingness of many key individuals as well as that of the institution to build for success within the local environment. One is reminded of the challenging words of Machiavelli in *The Prince:* "There is nothing more difficult to take in hand, more perilous to conduct or more uncertain in its success, than to take the lead in the introduction of a new order of things."

Present and future realities

A language program, no matter how carefully planned and implemented at one point, is subject to change by demands from several sources.

Rapidly changing social, economic, and political conditions often lead to a national reordering of priorities in education. For example, the influence of recent court decisions and state and federal legislation give rise to some of the "real problems" facing language teachers. Brannon and Cox (5) cite the teaching of the handicapped, the culturally disadvantaged, and the bilingual child as examples.

The impact of public interest and pressure groups at all levels of government and society is critical, too, in determining present and future directions for language teachers. Enwall (11) describes the renewed emphasis on the "basics" in American schools and its potential impact on language programs. The 1977 Gallup Poll of Attitudes Toward Education (14), an established source of nation-wide opinions about educational policies and practices, lists among the ten major problems confronting schools "difficulty of getting 'good' teachers" and "poor curriculum." When asked about the back to basics movement, 83 percent of the respondents favored it. No other area on the poll showed such strong national support. The results of such polls alert school officials to national attitudes toward current school problems and also serve as indicators of local opinion.

Another important, as well as controversial issue, is the place of teacher unions in the curriculum change process. A negative attitude is expressed by Williams (51) who believes that unions make important changes by administration and boards of education almost impossible. The positive side of this controversy is taken up by Vaughn (49) who feels that a united teacher collective bargaining agent is a potent force in making meaningful changes in curriculum and programs. It cannot be denied that contract terms do have a direct influence on the quality of curriculum and instruction and must be considered when changes are being planned.

Change or renewal has become increasingly necessary because of several additional issues, such as declining enrollments and fiscal restraints (Brannon and Cox, 5). A corollary to the reality of fewer students and decreasing budgets is the stability of staff. In New York State, for example, the percentage of foreign language teachers age 18–25 in 1976–77 was 7.7; in 1972–73, it was 21.6 (36, 37). The percentage of permanently certified foreign language teachers in New York State has risen from 60.6 in 1972–73 to 83.8 in 1976–77. New York is one of many states which does not require periodic recertification of teachers. Teacher turnover in districts has also declined as the potential for openings elsewhere in education recedes. This teacher surplus is likely to continue into the 1980s as cited in a recent report compiled by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (35).

During the next eight to ten years, our numbers are expected to be severely limited—thereby stabilizing personnel—while simultaneously requiring *more* of us. Our focus, then, should increasingly be on our own continual growth and personal renewal within our chosen careers as foreign language educators.

Staff development for change

Staff development is the most important instrument we have for providing all levels of educational personnel with the skills and knowledge necessary to adjust to the accelerating demands for change. Interestingly, these demands have the potential for transforming inservice training into programs for ongoing, long-term staff development. Because recruitment of new teachers no longer will serve to revitalize faculties, staff development must be viewed as an integral part of the educational program in schools rather than a method for remediation.

Two inservice models

Two prevalent inservice models have been identified in The Rand Corporation's recent Change Agent Study (4): the *deficit model* and the *developmental model* (see Table 1).

The Rand survey research has established that successful change agent programs are clearly of the developmental kind (29). Neither the amount of money expended nor the project technology employed was significantly related to project success. Two important factors emerge as determinants:

1 *Support from administrators and the institution.* Are they behind the project and supporting the teachers' efforts? Are they in attendance at meetings, workshops, informal sessions? Unless the principals actively back a project, it is doomed to discontinuance.
2 *Local implementation methods.* Are *materials* being developed locally by teachers? Do they feel a commitment, a sense of ownership, and identifi-

Table 1 Deficit and developmental models

Deficit Model	Developmental Model
1. Programs are based on the assumption that teachers have inadequate knowledge and/or skills, and that this lack can be remediated with a short term series of workshops on a particular subject.	1. Programs provide teachers with methods for continuously identifying and solving problems themselves rather than concentrating on any one particular problem.
2. Programs are usually one-shot workshops with no follow-through or follow-up/evaluation by anyone involved.	2. The district recognizes the continuing need for personal and professional growth and renewal of the staff.
3. Format is often a lecture by an outside consultant.	3. Local resource people often conduct sessions or guide innovative efforts whenever possible.
4. Programs are developed almost exclusively by the administration.	4. Teachers are co-planners in all programs.
5. Programs are standardized throughout the district with little or no attention paid to different conditions in each school or the individual needs of the teachers.	5. Different needs for different teachers in each school are identified and planned for.
6. Principals appear occasionally to introduce speakers, but rarely stay for the sessions.	6. Principals are trained along with staff members.
7. Incentives for these programs are credits toward an increase in salary or the fulfillment of recertification requirements.	7. Release time rather than monetary incentives is used for staff training.
8. These programs are most often held after the close of the school day.	8. Sessions are conducted during the school day, and release time is granted.
9. Inservice funding is often the first item cut under limited budgets.	9. Continued funding is earmarked for staff development whether the spending for the district is limited or not.
10. Since workshops rarely stress the continuity of content or the development of faculty esprit, permanent "centers" are rarely established.	10. Teacher centers for the district often evolve in this model.

cation with the materials? Are they learning by doing? Does *on-line planning* exist before the start of the project and continue throughout? Is evaluation a continuing process as teachers meet formally and informally to plan the next steps? Is there *ongoing training?* Is it concrete, hands-on? Do all new or transferred personnel receive the training before involvement in the program? Is it offered by local personnel? Is it flexible enough to meet sudden changes?

In planning an inservice program, it behooves us to remember that mature learners are in some ways unique. Knowles (25) reminds us that:

> The important implication for adult education practice of the fact that learning is an internal process is that those methods and techniques which involve the individual most deeply in self-directed inquiry will produce the greatest learning. This principle of ego-involvement lies at the heart of the adult educator's art. In fact, the main thrust of modern adult-educational technology is in the direction of inventing techniques for involving adults in ever-deeper processes of self-diagnosis of their own needs for continued learning, in formulating their own objectives for learning, in sharing responsibility for designing and carrying out their learning activities, and in evaluating their progress toward their objectives. The truly artistic teacher of adults perceives the focus of responsibility for learning to be in the learner; he conscientiously suppresses his own compulsion to teach what he knows his students ought to learn in favor of helping his students learn for themselves what they want to learn (p. 23).

Inservice education: How useful?

A recent study by Zigarmi et al. (55) in South Dakota identified twenty-one inservice activities which teachers were asked to rank according to degree of usefulness. Listed in descending order of usefulness they are:

1. Two-week summer Current Trends workshop—in which teachers are introduced to many creative ideas and innovations by college and university resource people, nationally known educators, and other teachers.
2. Classroom assistance from another teacher
3. Workshop—carried out on a college or university campus over a period of time during the regular school year
4. Observation of teachers in other school systems
5. Observation of teachers in own school system
6. Special college courses conducted at school by a college or university staff member

7 Workshop—block of time set aside during the summer for intensive study of a significant educational problem
8 Conference or workshop sponsored by professional teachers' organization
9 SDEA (South Dakota Education Association) Helpmobile—a workshop conducted by a traveling teacher on Saturdays throughout the state
10 Reading professional education journals
11 Local faculty meeting planned by teachers and administrators specifically for inservice
12 Convention sponsored by professional teachers' organization
13 One-day regional workshop involving several school systems
14 Local faculty meeting planned by teachers specifically for inservice
15 Reading bulletins, newsletters, and brochures
16 Workshop—block of time set aside during the school year for intensive study of an educational problem
17 Full-day inservice program conducted by an outside consultant
18 One two-hour inservice program conducted by an outside consultant
19 Half-day inservice program conducted by an outside consultant
20 Local faculty meeting planned by administrators specifically for inservice
21 Presentation by educational sales representative

The conclusions reached by the authors of this survey parallel those of the developmental model:

- The most useful inservice activities are the ones that meet teachers' preassessed needs.
- Teachers should have several alternatives from which to choose in their inservice education.
- More time is needed to plan and implement staff development with follow-up activities for teachers to apply what they have learned.
- Teachers can be resources for each other.
- Teachers are more committed to staff development in which they have been involved from the beginning stages of planning.

Foreign language preservice and inservice education: Some gaps

Bailey's (1) review of preservice foreign language education for teachers and the training of teaching assistants describes the careful planning and implementation that exists in many of our teacher preparation institutions.

There are nonetheless gaps between the training of foreign language teachers and the reality of the classroom. Herold (18) surveyed thirty-nine foreign language authorities to identify these gaps. Because secondary schools are changing at such a rapid pace, methods teachers have had difficulty in preparing future teachers for innovations such as individualized or personalized instruction, multiple textbooks, emphasis on small "c" culture, multi-level classes, audiovisual equipment and techniques for a variety of "new" language students whose goals, interests, and talents lie in directions other than the traditional humanistic one. Several of the authorities surveyed mentioned the reluctance of teachers and their teacher trainers to innovate and experiment.

DeLorenzo (10) reports that experienced foreign language teachers want more inservice assistance in coping with their changing roles, as well as in teaching methodology, language proficiency, and the development of materials. It appears that the majority of the teachers surveyed in the Northeast in 1977 have been involved in deficit model inservice programs. They complained that the course work was too general to be helpful to them in their classrooms and described their inservice experiences as "poorly structured, too idealistic, too superficial, irrelevant, or too brief."

Inservice education might better address itself to providing those involved in change—particularly the teacher and the supervisor—with skills for assessing and solving problems rather than confining them to remediating the specific gaps in knowledge and the strategies identified in the previous section. These problem-solving skills can then be applied to specific situations in which institutional change, personal growth, and professional renewal are necessary.

The purpose of this chapter is to identify for the language teacher and supervisor the steps, strategies, and questions needed "to take the lead in the introduction of a new order of things."

Planning for change

Personal growth and renewal imply organizational change and modification. The foreign language teacher and leader needs to be able to identify characteristics of the setting, the individuals and groups involved, their interrelated roles, and the change process itself which have proven necessary for successful innovation or modification.

Research and theory on educational change is extensive. However, practical suggestions on how to accomplish change *in situ* have not been extensively developed. An exception in the foreign language field is The Report of Working Committee II on Innovative Trends for the 1971 Northeast Conference on *Leadership For Continuing Development* (Hugot, 19; Mirsky, 31) which outlines the rationale for and implementation of change describes conditions favorable to change, and suggests ways of implementing change and disseminating information on it.

Premises about change

We begin with the premise that *change must be carefully planned.* It can be accomplished best with definite goals in mind and within a supportive atmosphere. Often we lose sight of this premise when, for example, funding is announced, and we scramble to retrieve our share of the pie. A new practice, no matter what its source or intention, may not be an improvement over the present if there is no relationship between the change and the needs of those who would benefit from it. Rapid and arbitrary adoption of a program that eventually meets with failure serves to intensify the resistance to change which tends to exist in many of us.

A second premise is that planning for change in a democratic society should involve the *decision-making skill of all those groups and individuals who are to be affected by the change.* Planning is not the exclusive domain of a small group of specialists.

A third premise is that there is an *important relationship between the health of the organization or system and the success or failure of the change* (Miles, 30). The nature and expectations of the student body and the community members, and the realities of the daily school operations are crucial to whether a change should be undertaken and what form it should assume.

Curriculum change models

Different educational settings require different curriculum change models. Planned change is likely to take the form of one of the following models (Havelock, 17):

1 *From bottom to top: The integrative development or problem-solving model:* Planned change begins with the curiosity or dissatisfaction of the teachers and eventually moves out of the classroom to meetings and workshops. First, problems are identified and studied. Then teachers, assisted by curriculum leaders, outside consultants, and/or administrators, are presented with alternative methods and skills for solving these problems. Finally, those involved decide whether or not to adopt the selected alternatives and to what extent.

2 *From top to bottom: The adoption of a research and development model:* This model begins with an already finished product which has been researched and developed at a university, regional laboratory, or commercial concern and is ready for dissemination and adoption in the field. In order to diffuse the product or program, a facilitator usually convinces influential persons in a school of its value and often trains key personnel who in turn train others.
The large scale adoption of packaged materials focused on the audiolingual methodology in recent years is an example of this model in foreign

languages. The language laboratory which had financial incentives to facilitate its adoption is another.

3 *The social interaction model:* The users of change and their environment are the focus of this model. Teachers, for example, are influenced by their peers, the groups to which they belong, and the opinion leaders on the faculty or in the community. The formal and informal structure of the school and the action of the change agent in convincing potential users of the change are important to its possible adoption. Phases of this model include awareness, interest, trial, evaluation, development, and installation (Havelock, 17). Goddu (15) describes at length the application of this model by language teachers.

4 *The linkage process model:* Havelock (17) incorporates elements of the three previously described models to develop a new one. The first phase is problem identification and problem solving by the user. In the second, the user must understand the processes of the research and development model. The third phase utilizes the reciprocal feedback process of the social interaction model, and the fourth establishes linkages among the persons involved in the first three phases.

5 *The organizational development model:* The most recently developed model is a planned, systematic problem-solving process which is based on statistics, behavioral science, research findings, and change models. Its purpose is to train a staff to deal with and solve their organizational change needs (Lippitt, 28).

6 *The "nonmodel" for change:* This school of thought claims that innovation does not include goals, priorities, or evaluation, but rather deals solely with the resolution of staff dissatisfaction with existing practices in the particular school environment. The change process is not planned but is developed spontaneously without any systematic scheme (Shiman and Lieberman, 45; Wolf and Fiorino, 52).

In each model change is adopted through different processes. If, after sufficient trial and evaluation periods, the new program is successful and satisfactory to everyone involved, its installation and institutionalization are accomplished. The cycle is completed as this change becomes a candidate for replacement or improvement through the steps outlined in the models.

Innovations

The characteristics that have contributed to successful diffusion of innovations have been identified through several studies (Carlson, 6; DeArman, 8; Howes, 21; Miles, 30; Rogers, 38). Although the nature of the innovation itself will not guarantee its adoption and continued use, the following factors do account to some degree for the varying rates of diffusion (Rogers, 38).

1. *Relative advantages:* the degree to which the change is superior to what presently exists.
2. *Compatibility:* the degree to which the change reflects the present values and experiences of its potential users.
3. *Complexity:* the degree to which the change involves complicated, new methods.
4. *Divisibility:* the degree to which the change may be adopted on a partial or flexible basis.
5. *Communicability:* the degree to which the change can be observed or explained, demonstrated, and diffused.

Miles (30) also cites *cost* (expensive programs are more likely to be abandoned than less costly ones); *technological factors* (a change that involves complicated hardware is more likely to be abandoned); *associated materials* (comprehensive ready-to-use, but adaptable, complete units are more likely to be adopted); and *implementation supports* (technological innovations depend on their availability, ease of use, and the skill of the operator).

Based on these considerations, the following questions should be asked as a new program is being considered (Becker and Hahn, 3):

On the physical format:

- What form does the program take? Hard cover or soft cover text? Multiple texts? Multimedia components? Are all components available? Are instructions clear?
- Is special equipment needed? Special space arrangements?
- Is the program composed of units that can stand alone or is it a continuous, sequential set of lessons?
- How much instructional time is needed for individual units in the program?
- What kinds of student groups are necessary? Small group, large group, individualized, full class?
- What advantages does the physical format of the innovation possess? What disadvantages?
- Does the district have certain rules or format that must be followed? If so, do the new materials conform?

On durability and cost:

- What does the new program cost?
- What continuing or replacement costs are involved?
- What is the per pupil cost initially? after five years?
- What do necessary supporting materials, equipment, and facilities cost?
- What does supporting teacher training cost?
- What costs can be reduced without harming the program?

- Can costs be minimized on a long-term basis?
- What resources are available in the district and outside to cover these costs?

User characteristics

As important as the cost is the intangible element of the demand which a new program places on all users—teachers, students, community.

On teacher characteristics:

- What skills and knowledge must the teachers have for change to be effective?
- How can these skills be acquired? Are there teacher guides, training programs, or consultative services? Is district inservice the solution?
- Are teacher imagination and creativity being encouraged?
- How can the teachers obtain feedback as they progress in order to make adjustments in the program?

On students and community characteristics:

- What cognitive and affective entry behaviors should the students have to use this program with success?
- What adaptions can be made to meet the special needs and interests of the students?
- If the change is controversial, how can this be dealt with in the school and community?

Formative questions

In making decisions about the course of program modification, the following questions should be answered:

- Is the change better than what existed before?
- Is the change itself compatible to the identified needs of those affected by it?
- Is the change manageable in terms of the new skills and knowledge required of the teacher?

If the answer to any of these questions is negative, careful reconsideration must be given to the further pursuit of the change. If the answer to all questions is positive, we proceed to diagnosing the setting in which the change will take place.

The setting

The definition of "organization" is one that readers must make for themselves. Determine: 1) the limits or boundaries of the educational organization/system of which you are a part, and 2) who and what are inside and outside of these borders. It may be your classroom, department, school, the entire district, or several districts. The "who" may be you, your colleagues, the principal, department head, supervisor, the superintendent, or the school board. The following questions may assist with these identifications:

- Who are the people immediately involved in and affected by the change?
- Who are the people who must be involved if the change is to be successful?
- Will the change require budgetary decisions? If so, by whom?
- Who outside the system will be involved and how?

Miles (30) contends that the organizational climate or the state of health in an educational organization is a greater predicator of the success of a change effort than any other factor. By devising questions based on Miles' ten dimensions of health (as set out by Zais in Stage 1 of this volume), determine the condition of the setting in which you are planning change.

1 *Goal focus.* Are organizational goals clear and well accepted?
2 *Communication adequacy.* Is communication vertical, horizontal, and distortion free? Is information easily accessible?
3 *Optimal power equalization.* Is the distribution of influence relatively equitable? Are decisions made from above or below within the school?
4 *Resource utilization.* Do faculty members feel satisfied with their work load? Are they learning, growing, and developing in their work?
5 *Cohesiveness.* Do faculty members enjoy friendly social relations with each other? Do they have influence on the organization?
6 *Morale.* Do system members feel satisfied with their jobs and social needs?
7 *Innovativeness.* Does the system encourage growth and improvement of staff and program?
8 *Autonomy.* Is the system generally independent of undue outside influence?
9 *Adaption.* Can the system cope with a changing social and political environment? To what degree?
10 *Problem-solving adequacy.* How effectively does the system solve its problems? What mechanisms does it use to problem solve?

Lake, et al. (27) have developed several detailed instruments for assessing school climates.

An ideal climate is strong in these ten dimensions. Recognition of weaknesses in the climate should be followed by a positive movement toward their improvement. This recognition also warns those involved in the change process of potential problems which may be avoided if identified in advance.

Individual characteristics and roles

The ability to assess personal characteristics and attitudes among one's colleagues, administrators, supervisors, and community members can contribute much to a successful effort for change. It is also important to be aware of the formal and informal relationship that holds these key people together (Havelock, 17).

The innovators: "Pioneer," "advance scout," "lighthouse," "experimenter," "cultural avant-garde"—these are names for the innovator. Rogers (39) places the innovator among the first 2.5 percent of a group to adopt a new idea. He attributes the following characteristics to them: they read and travel a lot; they are usually intelligent and venturesome; they are future oriented; they are receptive to outside influence such as that of the change agent (if they are not the change agent themselves). Although they may not be liked or have a great deal of influence on others, they will carry through their own commitment to a change despite the disagreement or scorn of others.

Rogers further categorizes people according to the time span needed for their adoption of an innovation: *early adopters* represent the next 13.5 percent; *early majority* 34 percent; *late majority* 34 percent, and *laggards* or *resisters* the last 16 percent.

The resisters: In contrast to the innovators and early adopters, the resisters often do not travel or read extensively; they tend to be loners or with others sharing their traditional values; they cling to the past; they are suspicious of any change, change agents, and innovators.

The leaders. The leaders are usually a few important members of the community, the faculty, or the administration, whose supportive opinions are a key factor to the growth of any change. They tend not to be innovators themselves, but they listen to the innovators and the resisters, forming an opinion based on concrete evidence of progress. They often support a new idea at the point when it becomes popular and feasible to do so. Without their support, (since they often serve as *facilitators*—making the adoption of the change easier—or *gate-keepers*—providing the needed funds, time, outside resources), change is exceedingly difficult. These leaders often serve as *inside advocates* moving change through appropriate channels, and as *legitimizers* who because of their status and power can give the change sanction (Rogers and Shoemaker, 40).

The change agent

Havelock (17, p. 4) defines the change agent as "a person who facilitates planned change or planned innovation"—the planner, trainer, catalyst, and/or involved supporter of change.

There have been attempts to apply the analogy of the successful agricultural extension agent to the change agent in education. Further consideration shows, however, that education lacks: 1) scientifically established knowledge, 2) a respected communication system between innovations and potential audiences; and 3) the sole authority to guide decisions (Carlson, 6). Changes in education are consequently far more complex and erratic than in agriculture.

Change agents in an education organization are usually a part of the system which is seeking change. They understand the school and community, know the teachers, and are easily contacted. Being accepted and respected by the staff and administrators is important to the change agent's chances for success. Rather than playing the advocate role, change agents should view themselves as consumer educators. They must evaluate objectively the impact of the change and provide others with better understanding of its effects.

Self analysis for a change agent. The change agent must be willing, too, to examine his or her skills and the reasons for promoting change by answering the following questions:

- Why do I want to promote this change? Give as many reasons as possible, and list them in order of importance.
- What do my colleagues, administrators, supervisors believe my role to be? Should I be the promoter in their eyes?
- What knowledge, skills, and values do I have that will be helpful in the diffusion of the change?
- What is my personal style, and how is it perceived by those with whom I work?
- Do I have a position from which I can influence others about this change?
- Do I have the time, energy, and authority for implementing this change?
- Will the results be worth the effort?
- How can I use the knowledge generated by the previous questions?

Related roles

The functional roles of innovator, change agent, inside advocate, opinion leader, and legitimizer have been identified and their direct impact on the change process discussed.

There are also job-related roles within the educational organization that may overlap with the functional ones. These include curriculum developers, college professors/teacher trainers, professional organization leaders, state department of education personnel, department heads, administrators, teachers, students, parents, and community members. Becker and Hahn's (3) discussion of these roles is the basis for this section.

The developers. Developers, who are usually employed by commercial and educational research organizations, create and package materials for distribution to users. Developers often set the stage for coming materials by writing articles and appearing at professional meetings. Of course, when teachers initiate and write their own materials, there is little need for a developer's product except for use as a model.

However, if a packaged program is being considered, the following questions may serve as guidelines:

- Who are the developers? What is their background?
- Are the developers known in the field through articles, speeches, attendance at meetings, and workshops?
- How can the developers assist in promoting the new program?
- Can they assist in the training of teachers?
- Was the program field-tested, and what research is available on this testing?
- If adaptation is needed, what services can the developers provide to the adopters?

College professors/teacher trainers. The major contribution of university and college professors is through their activities as teacher pre- and in-service instructors. Teacher trainers serve as models of their own teaching style to students, student teachers, experienced teachers, teaching assistants, and to their university colleagues. On occasion they have introduced new programs to teachers in their regular campus classes or in summer institutes.

Caution must be exercised in choosing college instructors other than teacher trainers to work with schools. Although he or she may be an expert in a particular discipline, it does not necessarily follow that the professor is also aware of educational innovations.

College professors can often contribute a great deal by lending their prestige to the support of a new program. The following questions might help to determine the role that college professors can play in the change process:

- Which professors are known and respected because of their formal contact with teachers in the district or through their research, articles, and presentation at local, state, and national meetings?
- Which professors are interested in working with the schools?

- Which professors are willing to offer special courses that relate to teachers' needs and interests in developing new programs?
- Which professors are able to offer workshops for staff development?
- Which professors would be interested in having local educators speak to their students about educational developments?

Leaders of professional organizations. Local, state, regional, and national leaders of foreign language associations may serve as opinion leaders, catalysts, and supporters of an innovation. They often have influence as to which articles are solicited and published in professional journals, which conference presentations are made, and which causes the organization will champion.

The ways in which these leaders can promote change can be determined through these questions:

- Who are these leaders? What influence can they exert? Where?
- Through what professional publications and conferences could an innovation be publicized or could the stage for future change be set?
- How can potential users be encouraged to participate in the organization's activities? to read journals and newsletters?

Officials of state departments of education. State language consultants can be keys to diffusion. Through textbook adoptions laws, proposal writing for federal funding, selection of schools and projects to be funded by state and federal monies, inservice workshops, consultatory visits, newsletters, cooperation with state and local professional organizations, they can keep teachers informed of new developments. Other state education agency (SEA) personnel can be helpful to language programs as well. Guidelines to ways in which these agencies can encourage change include:

- How can SEA personnel help disseminate information about an innovation? How can they interest others? What individuals can conduct workshops? Include articles in newsletters? Provide mailing lists? Visit schools with innovations? Survey the state for other innovations?
- How can SEA personnel provide support for your innovation? Financially? Through consulting services?
- How can these key SEA personnel be contacted?
- Who in the SEA influences teacher certification? Funding? Development of guidelines for textbooks and materials? Curriculum guides? Who approves new courses?
- How can SEA personnel be better informed about local innovations and their evaluation?
- Who in the SEA can assist in diffusing an innovation within your system?

Supervisors and department heads. The foreign language supervisors are usually among the most active supporters of change. In their leadership positions, they are expected to belong to local, state, and national foreign language associations, to read foreign language journals, and to attend meetings whenever possible. Often they return from such conferences with ideas gleaned from speakers and workshops which they then share with the staff. They observe classes and provide feedback to teachers who are trying new programs. They themselves may teach demonstration classes, inviting their staff members to observe a new technique, equipment, or materials in action. They serve as evaluators and resources during trial periods and occasionally serve as buffers between innovators and less receptive members of the staff. They are the liaison between teachers and administrators.

They provide materials for new programs and sometimes facilitate purchases of materials for a special purpose. They can conduct workshops on the innovation or contact people to do so. If they should be opposed to the change, however, there is little chance of its survival.

The ways in which they may facilitate change are highlighted by the following questions:

- How can supervisors and department heads keep abreast of the latest developments in foreign languages? Through which journals, meetings, organizations, agencies and individuals?
- How can they create awareness and build interest in new programs? Through memos, workshops, department meetings? Through visits by state education department consultants, publishers' representatives, local university teacher trainers?
- Can they arrange for rewards such as inservice credit, release time, publicity on the innovation, school and community recognition?
- How can they assist in finding opinion leaders and inside advocates? In influencing administrators?
- How can they support the innovator? By adjusting schedules and workload? By purchasing new materials and equipment? By procuring a teacher aide?
- How can they assist in evaluating the progress of the innovator? Through observations and evaluation data?

Administrators. The importance of the role of the *principal* in staff development has been discussed already in the section on models of staff development. Their approval or disapproval of change is crucial because of the power and control they exert within the organization. They must approve money for texts, materials and equipment, additional staffing, different scheduling procedures, release time for meetings and attendance at conferences and workshops, and policy changes. *Assistant superintendents for instruction* should also be helpful in facilitating change by serving as models for the staff in their receptivity to ideas and their support of individual and system growth. It is, in short, virtually impossible to bypass administrators in the change process.

Ask the following questions when determining how administrators can facilitate change:

- Who possesses the leadership qualities necessary to affect change?
- What resources and support do they control?
- What approval must they give?
- Who within the framework of the change process has access to these key administrators and has the most influence on them?
- How can administrators be involved in staff development on a continuous basis?
- How can the administrator follow the change process through its various stages?

Teachers and instructors. The innovators and early adopters among teachers often change on their own. Some of them have credibility with other teachers and can convince colleagues to use a new program. They enlist the support of administrators and department heads through their enthusiasm.

Often when teachers are told unilaterally to adopt a change, as in the research and development model, they may resist by using it incorrectly or not at all. Unless involved in the search for new materials, and in their trials and evaluations, most teachers do not accept a change readily. The resisters can slow the diffusion of change, no matter what its merits.

If teachers who are opinion leaders are sought out and informed about the latest developments, they, in turn, will convince others to adopt it. "Awareness" inservice workshops serve to explain an innovation, discuss its alternatives, and answer questions on its ramifications. Observation of teachers using the new materials or strategies by their colleagues is advisable at this time as well. The need for training workshops before the adoption of a change has been discussed previously. Teacher feedback is crucial at all stages if an innovation is to hold.

Teachers can make the change successful by considering these questions:

- How can teachers be kept informed? Through workshops, meetings, bulletin board announcements, memos, demonstrations, conferences, journals, newsletters? By other teachers, supervisors, administrators, professional leaders, state department of education personnel, university professors?
- How can teachers transmit information to others in their system? Through personal contact, publicity, students, interested parents?
- Who are the key opinion leaders who can convince teachers of the merits of a program?
- How can teachers be involved in the decision-making process, the

setting of priorities, planning of staff development, implementing of new programs, and evaluating the results of the innovation?
- Should teacher organizations play a greater role in encouraging change? How can this be accomplished?

Students. Students, especially those from middle school on, serve several roles in change. They provide feedback during the trial stage of a program which guides the teacher in the further adaptation or eventual discontinuation of the innovation. They report their feelings to other students and their parents. If opinions are positive, other students will request the program. If feelings are negative, the program may never be adopted.

Students who are involved in the planning of change from the beginning eventually develop a commitment to the change. The idea of listening to students has, unfortunately, not yet been widely institutionalized. It is strongly suggested that they be included on committees to improve the school's curriculum.

Students can play an important role in the change process:

- How can students contribute to the selection and implementation of new programs? Through their general reactions to the curriculum, their involvement in the planning and evaluation of materials and programs, their specific reaction to an innovation?
- What form can this evaluation take? Written attitude scales, interviews, academic progress pre- and post-test results?
- How can students become more involved in school policy decisions? Student government committees, student-teacher curriculum committees, informal discussions?

Parents and community members. Parents and community members give feedback to teachers and administrators based on what they have heard from students. It is advisable to inform parents of an innovation in advance of its adoption, and to include them in some of the meetings, demonstrations, and workshops where the change is the focus (Schindler-Rainman et al., 43). Should a change be too sudden or controversial, the merits of the program may be obscured by poor communication. Seeking out opinion leaders in the community is of prime importance (Rose et al., 41), and they should be involved in committees on curriculum, especially to establish goals and objectives for the local school district.

The role of parents and community members can be outlined through the following questions:

- Who are key opinion leaders who should be informed in advance of the adoption of a change?
- How can the community be informed about a change? Through an-

nouncements, meetings, workshops, attendance at demonstrations, visits to classes?

- Could parents and community members act as volunteer aides in classes where the innovation is being used?
- Could inservice courses for parents and community members be conducted?

Timing and occasions

The analyses of the innovation, the individual roles and their interrelationships, and the setting have been outlined. What remains is to coordinate our knowledge of these elements with a realistic time line and appraisal of opportune *occasions* (see Table 2 for examples) to move the innovation ahead. If, for example, new course guidelines must be submitted by November 1 and budgeting for the next school year by January 15, the process of getting a new idea or practice implemented must begin in the previous school year or even before. If planning begins too late, the implementation may better be delayed until the next school year. The time required between research and awareness workshops in the initial stages and training inservice and implementation could be two years, depending on how many people are involved and how complex the change is.

The key questions to ask here are:

- What occasions or events will be important in the change process?
- How much lead time is necessary to move the innovation ahead once you have permission to begin?
- What occasions provide opportunities for working and which aspects of the program should be the focus?

Communication

We have reviewed the interaction of functional and related roles. Such interractions, above all, involve communication, and as with timing, careful planning is essential. We must ask who will communicate, to whom, through what media, and what message will be sent. By reviewing the roles described previously, a plan for effective use of communication channels should be devised by the planners.

Developing a plan

The next step is to set up an overall plan for change. It is suggested that the planner(s) use a large sheet of newsprint to diagram a format, which shows the stages in implementing any new program. After having considered the timing, occasions, and roles as shown in Table 2, look at each action to be sure that the necessary groundwork has been laid.

Evaluating progress. When change is carefully planned, evaluation of progress and identification of problems in the process are facilitated.

Becker and Hahn (3) suggest several sources of data needed to evaluate progress:

- formal observation of staff members: their actions and their reactions
- informal conversations with those involved
- open, relaxed, informal meetings to discuss positive and negative reactions
- formal sessions to discuss data and plan future steps
- questionnaires
- interviews and discussion

These evaluation steps should be carried out continuously—at the beginning, intermediate, and late stages in a new program.

Perhaps the most important questions deal with the behavior of teachers in their interaction with students. Have there been changes in the foreign language classroom? What has been the impact of the new behaviors and knowledge on those with whom the teacher works?

Staff development strategies: A review of some "different" programs

Although the following staff development programs do not have specific foreign language components, they do represent models which we could emulate. Each program involves the interrelationship of school personnel, students, parents, and other community members which has been the focus of our discussion on the dynamics of the change process.

The "Floating Faculty"

This is an intensive inservice technique taking place in Prince George's County Public Schools (Maryland). It is staffed by a highly trained, volunteer group of teachers and an administrator. A faculty without a school, it "floats" from school to school to provide inservice to individual teachers who desire it. Floating faculty members, after several get-acquainted meetings, spend the first three days (of a seven-day stay) teaching the classes of the teachers with whom they are paired, so that those teachers can attend presentations by other members of the floating faculty. A four-day period follows in which there is peer sharing of ideas based on the individual teacher's needs. There is an evaluation of the experience by the floating

Table 2 Change plan

Time	Fall '78		Spring '79		Fall '79	Spring '80	Fall '80
Occasions	Department meeting	Awareness meetings	State conference	Planning sessions	Inservice workshops	Text selection/ materials development	Goal: full implementation of program
Roles	Actions						
administrator		arranges for and attends	arranges for key personnel to attend	attends	attends	involved	evaluates
teacher-innovator	attends	attends	attends—reports back to department	attends—tries limited use of X in classes	attends—encourages colleagues	involved	teaches
department head	introduces concepts to teachers		attends with teacher	attends—brings consultants	attends and leads with consultant and teacher	involved	evaluates/ teaches
change agent		attends and begins plan for planning	attends and talks to professional leaders, university professors involved	attends	attends and assists	involved	observes/ evaluates
students		attend		feedback to teacher-innovator	attend on occasion		feedback to teacher
parents opinion leaders		attend			attend on occasion		attend occasional classes—confer with teacher on progress

faculty member and the teacher. The community and students are also informed and are invited to meet the teachers (Daniels and O'Connell, 7). This technique works well in a county school system or where several schools belong to an intermediate district or regional system.

School self-renewal

This program emphasizes internal school fact finding and needs assessment (research) and shared decision making, planning, administration, implementation, and evaluation involving students, faculty, administration, and the business community. This program for nine projects in the United States including several in New York City is funded by the National Institute of Education. The processes have resulted in new courses, several of which deal with bilingual and multi-ethnic content. The New York City Board of Education has supported the program as well with some funding and release time for school personnel involved (Bassin and Gross, 2).

PACTS (Parents, Administrators, Community, Teachers & Students)

Labat (26) reports that in the District of Columbia public schools, one of the goals of the Board of Education is decentralization through PACTS. The purpose of this program is to make the school more responsive to the students, to facilitate the administration of the school, and to establish open channels of communication between the school and community. The importance of staff development has been recognized in implementing decentralization. Activities began with needs assessment and input from staff development task force members. Based on the results of this assessment several summer workshops were developed for teachers K-12, clerical personnel, community school aides, principals, and other administrators and students. Field based centers were established, and teams of participants were chosen from each area. After the sessions, these teams returned to their local schools to train more members of the staff and community.

Federally funded staff development

With the demise of the NDEA (National Defense Education Act) and EPDA (Education Professions Development Act) which was repealed in 1976, the federal government funds only two programs for the general education of teachers at various levels: the Teacher Corps and Teacher Centers.

Although not language education specific, these two programs can serve language teachers in their pursuit for further training and renewal. How much language programs benefit from this funding is obviously based on the extent of *participation of language teachers.*

Teacher Corps

Teacher Corps (47) was created to strengthen the educational facilities and services in low income areas (schools must be eligible for ESEA Title I funds to apply for Teacher Corps projects) and to serve as demonstration projects to change teacher education methods and the relationship among those traditionally involved in teacher education, i.e., colleges and universities, and school districts. In its initial phase Teacher Corps dealt with preservice education only; now the program emphasizes both preservice and inservice as a continuum. Grants are made jointly to school districts and higher education institutions.

Proposed changes meant to broaden the impact of the Teacher Corps include moving from two-year to five-year funding, establishing an elected community council which would be a third partner of the team, and authorizing all school staff—including principals, aides and counselors—to participate in Teacher Corps training. The inclusion of principals is critical in light of the research which shows their importance in the change process (Wolfe, 53). Although controversial, the addition of a community council to the team also opens a line of communication which has been neglected in this program in the past.

Teacher centers

Schmieder and Yarger (44) have written that "of all the new concepts in American education today, the teaching center is probably the most widely accepted as having significant promise for improving the quality of instruction in our schools" (p. 5).

The purpose of teacher centers, according to the Federal Register (46), "is to provide elementary and secondary school teachers with opportunities for training and curriculum development which meet their needs and enable them to serve better their students. Each teacher center is supervised by a teacher center policy board the majority of which is representative of elementary and secondary classroom teachers in the area to be served." A teacher center is defined as "a site which serves teachers from public and nonpublic schools of a State." There are teacher centers in church basements, within schools themselves, and on university campuses (Fiske, 12).

Unlike Teacher Corps projects, teacher centers can be established anywhere, and their major purpose is to provide resources for developing and administering inservice courses. Part of the funding for these centers may be expended for release time or substitutes so that teachers may participate in center programs during school hours. Although principally funding local districts, 10 percent of the appropriations will be reserved for colleges and universities to operate centers.

State funded staff development

Several states have now funded education training courses. Frechette (13) reports that Florida State University currently participates in the teacher education center program as established under the Teacher Education Center Act (1973, 1975). The Act provides a delivery system for preservice and inservice teacher education programs throughout the State of Florida. Under its provisions, local TEC Councils, composed of a majority of classroom teachers, determine the nature and scope of inservice training programs. Such programs are predicated upon an assessment of teacher inservice needs as determined by local teachers in conjuntion with building and district administrators.

Presently 39 of the 67 state school districts in Florida have elected to participate in the TEC program. By 1979 all school districts will be included as prescribed by the Act of 1973.

After four years of operation the TEC program appears to have the potential for improving the inservice education of teachers as follows:

1 Inservice activities may be especially designed to meet the needs of classroom teachers.
2 Public universities and colleges are authorized and funded to design, plan, and implement inservice activities in collaboration with local school districts.
3 Inservice education priorities may be determined by teachers.
4 Field-based off-campus credit courses may be integrated with noncredit inservice TEC activities.
5 Collaboratively planned long-term inservice programs permit classroom teachers to participate in training activities during the regular school day. Their classes during their absence may be taught by student teachers who are supervised by the college personnel who provide the inservice.
6 Ongoing action research may be conducted by all participants in conjunction with the planned preservice and inservice program. College personnel can fulfill the requirements for research and publication while directly involved in field-based supervision of student teachers and inservice of experienced teachers.

The National Humanities Faculty: One model for staff development

Created in 1968 by the National Endowment for the Humanities, the American Council of Learned Societies, the United Chapters of Phi Beta Kappa, and the American Council on Education, the National Humanities Faculty was charged to improve the teaching of the humanities in the nation's schools. The NHF believes that the best teachers know their materials and disciplines intimately, that good teaching demands continual intellectual renewal, and that students learn best when their teachers present curricula which those same teachers have developed. Therefore, the NHF does not indicate externally what school curricula must be or rely on packaged curricula as a substitute for sustained teacher and program development.

Rather, the NHF employs two basic methods to assist local teacher and curriculum development: 1) inservice programs through which its Faculty members and local teachers work together during Faculty visits in the schools to enrich teacher expertise and develop or renew curricula responsive to local needs which can utilize available resources identified by teachers and administrators at affiliated schools; 2) summer and other out-of-term institutes and workshops which provide intensive study and collaboration not subject to the demands of daily teaching responsibilities. Visits are made by Faculty members who have immediate personal knowledge of local resources and limitations. Providing time for concentration over a short period of time, workshops and summer institutes focus on substantial issues, texts, and methods in the humanities.

The NHF also requires that an administrator, usually the principal or superintendent, be a member of the core team which oversees the project from its inception.

NHF requirements for both formative and summary refinement assure responsible program direction and continuing refinement of procedures and Faculty selection. Extensive dissemination which includes a symposium held by the sponsored school for all surrounding districts guarantees substantial local sharing of resources within and beyond affiliated districts. National publicity brings program achievements to other audiences as well.

Thus, the NHF programs offer assistance through which schools create, by intensive teacher renewal in humanities studies, curricula and skills responsive to the best traditions of the humanities and to the daily needs of students. The three specific subject disciplines in the school curriculum in the initial 1978–79 phase are foreign languages, language arts, and history. The second and third phases continue to emphasize them and will also provide assistance in classical languages, philosophy, law, religion, and the arts (32).

Staff development: Present trends in foreign languages

State consultants

Saunders (42) reports that the West Virginia Department of Education has developed an evaluation booklet (22) to judge the quality of all inservice education being offered. The format consists of instructional packages that focus on specific learning problems encountered by children. The department is seeking to ensure that inservice education is meeting the assessed needs and interests of the participants. Foreign language workshops are conducted by combining local, state, and university personnel who follow a systems approach: needs assessment, identification of goals, training, and evaluation.

From Wyoming, Noble (33) reports that because of recertification, teachers must accumulate credits every five years, although not necessarily in their area of specialization. Since there are no state guidelines for curriculum, most programs are based on local needs. Her position as state consultant affords her the opportunity to work with foreign language teachers who request her services. In her state, however, communication is somewhat difficult because there is no state foreign language organization. Newsletters are issued, and occasionally questionnaires are distributed to determine needs.

According to Toussaint (48), foreign language staff development in North Carolina focuses on articulation and career-oriented education. North Carolina's industrial leaders, speaking at meetings of foreign language students and teachers, stress the need for some change in the orientation of programs and the importance of foreign language to the industrial growth of the state.

Change in Alabama (Howard, 20), in at least one case, came from the teachers who formed an organization called FLEA (Foreign Language Enthusiasts Association) to revitalize language programs. In this case, the teachers initiated the process of change which eventually reached the superintendent who in turn has directed the department to keep up enrollments through changes in the program. Both programs were successful despite their different direction of movement. Parents and students also became involved when a board of education was about to eliminate the foreign language program. Adequate communication among the different roles was the major reason for success in these instances.

In Virginia, Warriner (50) reports that inservice is more valuable if the state department of education and the locality are both involved in the planning and implementing. Needs are assessed in advance, and presenters are chosen for their expertise and ability to communicate. The foreign language consultants work with schools and individuals, develop curriculum materials and guides, and evaluate programs for accreditation purposes.

Teacher trainers

At the Ohio State University inservice offerings are designed to enhance the various skills required by teachers. There is flexibility in these courses because instructors are allowed to change content to match the needs of the teachers attending. These courses are offered in the late afternoon and evenings and are also free to local county teachers because of a unique exchange-of-services arrangement between the College of Education and area school districts. In return for permission to use the school for various practicum experiences for their students and for research, OSU gives teachers fee waiver credit (Jarvis, 23).

The State University of New York at Buffalo (Papalia, 34) has developed its foreign-language inservice training based on questionnaires distributed to teachers and administrators in the area and by the continuous evaluation of extant programs.

At the State University of New York at Albany, Hancock (16) reports that foreign language education courses are now being offered in the school setting rather than exclusively on the university campus.

In cooperation with the Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers, Knop (24) reports, the University of Wisconsin-Madison and the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction carried out a needs assessment. The results of this study produced workshops at the university in which teachers studied theories and goals of teaching culture and communicative competence, two of the assessed needs. Units developed by the teachers are distributed by the Department of Public Instruction, which has cooperated with the university in holding further workshops. Another step was completed recently when a videotaped inservice program on teaching second languages, along with guide manuals to aid in viewing and discussing the tapes, was produced.

DeLorenzo (10) describes current directions in the professional education of prospective and experienced foreign language teachers on the secondary and postsecondary levels throughout the eastern United States in the *1978 Northeast Conference Reports of Working Committee on New Teachers.*

Thus there are a variety of inservice programs being offered to foreign language teachers, and for the most part they are directed toward areas which the teachers themselves have identified.

Self-renewal and the foreign language teacher

Unfortunately, there are those who have lost interest in their work for various reasons. When educators see themselves and others reach a plateau of growth, energy, and leadership, they may lose the sense of challenge that brought them to a career in education in the first place.

Change may be facilitated through the individual's voluntary reevaluation of an individual's value system, which at critical periods requires strengthening or clarification.

Youngs (54) suggests that teachers in the web of career malaise seek to regain purpose and meaning in their professional lives by asking themselves the following questions;

1 "Am I enjoying my career as much as I could be?" (redesigning the dream)
2 "Am I getting the most out of my life?" (high self-esteem)
3 "Am I using my full potential?" (high expectation level)
4 "Am I making the best use of my time, knowledge, and skills?" (high standard of competence)
5 "Do I value productive work?" (the value of work)
6 "Can I generate my own happiness?" (happiness as a motivator)

She further suggests designing a personal assessment inventory:

- Identify and list the positive attitudes you held when you first began your career.
- Identify and list any changes in attitudes, and why you feel they have changed.
- In reviewing your past, identify and list the activities that brought you the most satisfaction and identify the skills associated with those activities. Identify the settings. For example, were you working alone or in a group? Were you working under pressure with interruptions or were you working in a more relaxed atmosphere?
- Ask yourself the following questions: How good are you at innovating new approaches to old problems or new ideas? Do you feel most comfortable implementing plans devised by others? Can you delegate responsibility? Do you dislike supervision? Do you think clearly and act decisively under pressure?

Another more formal instrument to assist teachers in exploring their beliefs and attitudes about foreign language learning and teaching was developed by de Garcia and Reynolds (9). This survey is designed to assist teachers in determining their values as reflected in their daily teaching of foreign languages. Such awareness can ultimately guide teachers' inservice growth and development.

After this self-assessment, one should first identify strengths which might be developed, and then other areas which need "productive change." The next step is to consider and plan how and when changes could take place in the framework of the daily contact with other educators and students. In some cases, self-assessment may lead to an eventual career change.

As with organizational change, evaluation should determine the progress made toward the goals of self-renewal; thus the cycle may begin again.

Youngs (54) suggests that educators might provide more individual counseling for colleagues who need additional assistance in enhancing their career competence and sense of satisfaction.

The importance of self-renewal in modifying the foreign language program and providing for change cannot be overemphasized. Successful language programs exist because of the interrelationship of many people. The pivotal figure in the plan is the teacher who seeks self-actualization, pursues continuing professional and personal growth, and serves as a model to colleagues and students of another people's tongue and culture.

Conclusion

The change process outlined is an ideal one and implies the eventual institutionalization of a major innovation in a school program, for example, the system-wide adoption of mastery learning. By reviewing the overall process, the foreign language teacher or supervisor can then choose and develop those elements crucial to the success of a specific change in the foreign language program, for example, mini-courses in the intermediate and advanced level courses. If a major program change is desired, however, it is suggested that all key elements described in this chapter be identified and analyzed.

To be effective and enduring beyond the career tenure of the innovator or change agent, the change process can not be accomplished in a matter of a few weeks or a semester. Rather than becoming discouraged by the length of time and the degree of effort involved, we must recognize the change process as the only acceptable *modus operandi* in today's foreign language programs, for change characterizes the educational world. If we are to meet the varying needs of our students and communities, our nation, and an interdependent world, we must assertively use the reality of change to accomplish our own goals. We must accept that there is no one right way, no one solution to these challenges. As language teachers with a deep knowledge of other ways of speaking, thinking, and living, we should be among the first educators to demonstrate adaptability to this constant movement and to the forward progression of time, events, and people. We must develop an acceptance of change and modification and an acute awareness of those forces which we can analyze and then, through our skills, knowledge, and leadership, harness for the benefit of our learners and the unknown future for which we are preparing them.

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NTC PROFESSIONAL MATERIALS

ACTFL Review, *published annually in conjunction with The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*

Building on Experience—Building for Success, ed., Phillips, Vol. 10 (1978)	Paperback 9378-2
The Language Connection: From the Classroom to the World, ed. Phillips, Vol. 9 (1977)	Paperback 9377-2
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